
**A MODERN
ENGLISH
GRAMMAR**

SECOND EDITION

Knud Schibsbye

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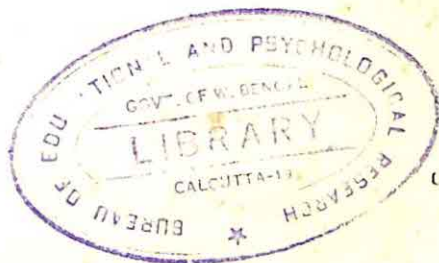
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A Modern English Grammar

with an Appendix on
Semantically Related Prepositions

Knud Schibbye

Second edition



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PREFACE

The aim of this book is to provide the student of English with a manual of English grammar which emphasizes those points where different shades of meaning are attached to phrases and constructions that seem interchangeable, and where stylistic distinctions may be made by choosing one linguistic form rather than another to express the same reality. The grammatical terms used are such as are commonly met with in grammars; if a term should be unfamiliar to a reader, its meaning should be easily inferred from the illustrative examples immediately following. Historical considerations are normally left out of account except in a few cases where they throw valuable light on present-day usage.

The bulk of the examples are taken from books, periodicals, etc. that have appeared since the Second World War. Most examples are anonymous; only occasionally has the source been given when it seemed of importance for the evaluation of the example. The reader may however rest assured that the examples quoted are genuine. Only so much of the context is given as is necessary in the case in question, but otherwise the quotations are left unaltered; hence the seeming inconsistency in the use of capitals in the opening word of abbreviated sentences quoted. The examples are separated by means of a diagonal; however, sometimes two diagonals are used to call attention to a slight difference between the preceding examples and the following in order to avoid stating an obvious difference in so many words (e.g. 13.4.1 second paragraph). To facilitate the reading of the examples the relevant part is printed in spaced bold type. In cases where the lack of a word is the point to be noted, double spacing between two words in the sentence is resorted to in order to catch the reader's eye; thus in the case of relative contact clauses (10.6.1).

The decimal system used for numbering the paragraphs has been adopted with the aim of achieving clarity as to the structure of the book as well as for ease of reference.

I am, of course, indebted to other writers on English grammar; in particular to Otto Jespersen and R. W. Zandvoort. Finally I wish to express my gratitude to Ingeborg Nixon, Ph.D., for her invaluable help in preparing the manuscript.

K. S.

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About, around, round 303; about, of, on (anent, as concerns; etc.) 305. **Above**, over 308. **Across**, over 309. **After**, behind 310; after, by 311; after, following 311; after, for 312; after, past 312. **Against**, from 313; against, (up)on, to, towards 313; against, versus 315; against, with 315. **Along**, alongside (of), down, up 316. **Amid**, amidst, in the centre of, in the middle of, in the midst of 317; amid(st), among(st) 318. **Among**, between 319. **As**, for 320. **As for**, as to, etc. 322. **At**, by 322; at, for 324; at, in 324; at, on 326; at, to 327. **Before**, ahead of, in front of 328; before, ere, previous to, prior to 329; before, till, until 329. **Behind**, (at the) back of 330. **Below**, beneath, under, underneath 330. **Beside**, at the side of, by the side of 332; beside, besides, alongside (of) 332. **Betwixt**, between 333. **Beyond**, above, below 333; beyond, after 334; beyond, besides, (over and above) 334; beyond, on the other side of 334; beyond, past 335. **By**, before 335; by, in, on 336; by, near, on 336; by, past 337; by, through 337; by, via 338; by, with, (of)

338. **During**, for 341; during, in 342; during, under 343. **Except(ing)**, bar(ring), but, save, saving 344. **For** 345; for, against 346; for, in 346; for, to 347. **From** 351; from, by 352; from, for, with 352; from, of 353; from, out of 354. **In** 354; in, into 355; in, on 357. **Inside** (of), in, within 360. **Near** (to), close to 362. **Next** (to), after, beside 363. **Notwithstanding**, despite, for, in spite of 363. **Of** 364. **Off**, from 365. **On** 366; on, after 367; on, on to 367. **Opposite** (to), over against 368. **Out** (of) 369; out of, in 369; out of, outside 369. **Outside** (of) 370. **Owing to**, due to 371. **Sans** 372. **Since**, after 372. **Till**, until, to 373. **To** 374; to, at 376; to, into 376; to, of 377; to, with 377. **Toward(s)** 378. **Under**, in 378. **Unto**, to 379. **Upon**, on 379. **With**, in 381.

VERBS

1.1.1 In practice it is not difficult to distinguish this part of speech; it is generally agreed that it comprises such words as *be, have, must, take, live, teach, spend*.

But it is difficult to define the class. If we take the form as our basis we might, for instance, fix on the suffix -s in the 3rd pers. sing. present, but this would exclude *can, may*, etc.

Another form criterion that seems applicable is the difference in the expression of present and past: *live/lived, fight/fought*. But this definition would not cover *put, set*, etc.

If we distinguish according to function, verbs could be defined as the sentence-forming element of a word-group. *God in his heaven* is not a sentence; *God is in his heaven* is. But this definition would not include infinitives, gerunds, and participles: *To be or not to be, that is the question / Erring is human / A sinking ship / Lost horizon*.

A wider definition on this basis could be obtained by regarding the nexus-forming^{*}) element of a group as a verb. This formulation would cover some more of the verbal forms mentioned above: *I found him missing / I expected him to be dead*. But this definition is likewise unsatisfactory, since in a sentence such as *don't speak with your mouth full* the term nexus is applied to *your mouth full*.

A definition by content is the most comprehensive, but also the vaguest. One might say that verbs express 'behaving'—partly in the sense of the subject manifesting itself (in the case of verbs used intransitively): *he works / lived*; partly of the way the subject behaves towards somebody or something else: *he loves / loved her* (in the case of verbs used transitively).—In the first case the dividing line between verbs and adverbs will become blurred, as can be seen in *he up and struck me†*; in the second case the dividing line between verbs and

^{*}) Nexus is one of the three main types of grammatical combinations: co-ordination exists between two or more elements of a phrase, each of which has the same function in the sentence as the whole phrase: *he has a dog and a cat / she caught and killed the mouse*; in subordination one of the elements of a phrase has the same function in the sentence as the whole phrase: *we saw a very old castle* (where *castle* fulfils the same function as *very old castle*); in a nexus none of the elements of the phrase has the same function in the sentence as the whole phrase: *I think he'll come / I found myself mistaken* (where *myself* is not the object of *found*; the object is *myself mistaken*).

†) Here *up* is still an adverb, but in the vulgar: *he ups and says* . . . the word must be said to have changed into a verb.

prepositions; compare *A. versus B.* and *A. playing B.*, where *versus* and *playing* may be said to express the same relationship.

1.1.2 Verbs can be classified under different heads.

If we classify them according to content we may distinguish between

(1) verbs expressing activity: *walk, fight, eat, speak*, whose common denominator is the verb *do*;

(2) verbs signifying condition: *sleep, wait, live*, whose common denominator is *be*; (1) and (2) may be comprised in the designation 'durative verbs', as opposed to:

(3) verbs signifying change ('perfective verbs'): *die, turn, rise*, whose common denominator is *get*.

There are however no clear-cut distinctions. A verb can quite well belong to more than one of the above groups: *I don't want to spend all my days in a small village; I want to live*. Here *live* expresses activity, not, as in general, condition: *they live in Yorkshire*. Or compare: *she covered her face* and *snow covered the ground*, where *cover* expresses activity (+ change) and condition respectively.

Verbs signifying change often show in their past participle a transition to designating the resulting condition. In a number of cases this difference is expressed by linking the past participle with *have* or *be*: *he has gone to China / as he stood in the dock, gone was the look of confidence which had paved the way for many big swindles // have they agreed to the conditions? / they were all agreed on the verdict // he has packed: I saw him throw a heap of clothes into a portmanteau / 'Are you packed?'—They were; and presently he telephoned for a cab // the war has not finished yet / when I have said it is wonderful weather for the time of year, I am finished*.—In many cases the two values are more or less equally probable: *the villagers are gone to rest / when she returned to the flat she found that the key and the pound notes had gone / he turned his head and his heart almost stood still with horror: his trousers had gone! / even when she is recovered, post-influenza will keep her weak till the summer / when she was dressed, she wanted to write some letters*.—In cases of this kind expressions with *be* occur more frequently in literary English than in ordinary speech: *the tunes of the world's purposes are gone mad and bad / the day was fallen into a wonderful still evening / even if nothing were left of the Gothic but a few grey ruins . . . , even if all the spires were fallen . . . , the study of them would still be an exciting study / his foes had pressed upon him; and eventually it had seemed that his hour was come / he*

banked his treasure in the hearts of his friends, and they will cherish his memory till their hour is come / as soon as we were started, the tempest dropped. (See also 1.5.7.)

A similar doubleness of content in the past participle is to be seen after *have* + object: *I had him beaten* = 'I caused him to be beaten' as against *he was impressed by the Paris Exposition. He realized that in many departments of manufacture the Frenchmen had us beaten.*

1.1.3 If the verbs are classified according to function we may distinguish between:

1. verbs used transitively: *the boy struck the dog*;
2. verbs used intransitively: *I dream every night*;
3. verbs used as copulas: *he is dead / my sister became a nurse*;
4. verbs used as auxiliary verbs: *I will help you / I have seen him.*

But no clear distinction can be drawn; very few verbs belong to only one of these groups. Such verbs as *hazard, rise, become, shall*, are of course easily classified; but many so often have several usages that it is difficult to decide which group they most often belong to: *I smoke cigars / I like to smoke // You'll get no reward / You'll get cold / you'll get caught.* But commonly a verb occurs most frequently in one of these usages, which one's linguistic feeling therefore tends to regard as the 'true' function of the verb in question: words such as *smile, walk, live* are generally used intransitively, *excite, kill, teach* transitively; but it must not be forgotten that the opposite usage is by no means rare: *she smiled her approval / he walked the horse up the hill / he lived a life of ease // the modern suburb seems designed to insulate the child from any vivid sensation which might excite or disturb / it is easy to kill, but impossible to restore life / I believe she teaches.*‡)

The formal distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs, formerly a prominent feature of English, producing many pairs of words: *set—sit, lay—lie*, etc. has now vanished, and most verbs can have both functions.

1.1.4 A verb used transitively expresses a two-sided action as seen in *the girl loves her doll / I hear a groan.* Here the content of the

‡) It is better to describe a case of this kind as 'teach used intransitively' than as 'teach with implied object'.—This may be illustrated by an example (Somerset Maugham: *Of Human Bondage*, Ch. X): '*Did your mother wash?*'—'Yes.'—'*She was a washerwoman then?*'—'No, she wasn't.'—'*Then she didn't wash.*'—Here it may be said either that *wash* is used with implied objects, and that there is a play on the two objects, *linen* and *parts of the body*, or, which is better, that *wash* is used intransitively, and that the pun is based upon the two values of the intransitive usage: 1) 'to be a washer-woman', 'to do the washing', and 2) 'to keep oneself clean'.

sentence could be symbolized by: subj. → vb. → obj.; that is to say, each sentence may be said to contain two more or less equally important elements: the activity of the subject: *the girl loves . . . / I hear . . .*, and the fact that the activity is directed towards the object: *. . . loves her doll / . . . hear a groan*. Sentences of this type, the most common transitive usage, can easily be converted into the passive.

In the case of transitive verbs which also have perfective associations (i.e. signifying change) the following point should be noted: the passive form may signify either condition or change: *the shop will be closed on Sunday* ('will be closed' = 'will not be open' as well as 'the closing will take place') / *he was buried here* ('was buried' = 'lay buried' as well as 'the burial took place').

1.1.5 Among special transitive usages to which the above-mentioned symbol (subj. → vb. → obj.) does not quite apply the following may be mentioned:

Verbs with an object of result: *he struck a light* (cp. *he struck the dog*) / *he dug a grave* (cp. *he dug the ground*) / *he painted the window* (*painted* = *made a picture of*; compare the same sentence with *painted* = *put paint on*). The passive form of these verbal combinations signifies change only, not condition, and thus does not possess the above-mentioned ambiguity.

A special type of object of result is the object related in content to the verb: *she smiled a curious smile / she laughed a sad laugh / she sighed a little sigh / Jeeves coughed that soft cough of his / die a glorious death / sleep the sleep of the just*. The object in these cases cannot be the substantive in question without the addition of a qualification, and the expressions cannot be put into the passive form. These 'cognate object' expressions are of stylistic importance in that they can replace the corresponding adverbial expressions (in the examples quoted: *curiously, sadly, etc.*).

Verbs with a reflexive pronoun as object: *she is dressing herself / he hurt himself / I usually shave myself*.—These combinations cannot be expressed in the passive.

1.1.6 As regards verbs in the intransitive usage it may be noted that they often have the same associations as the same verbs + object, and the 'implied object' (cf. note to 1.1.3) varies according to context and situation: *we wash every Monday* usually means '*wash the linen*'.—*How dirty you are, don't you ever wash?* implies the re-

flexive object.—Special interest is attached to those verbs which in addition to being used intransitively often occur with a reflexive pronoun as object. The difference between the two forms of expression may be great or small; compare *he recovered* and *he recovered himself* with *he dressed (himself)*; in the last example the intransitive and the reflexive construction both mean 'put on clothes', each however having different connotations. (See further under reflexive verbs 6.7.1 ff.). *They married* will have a reciprocal association if *they* represents 'a couple', but not if *they* represents, for instance, 'the brothers'. Many verbs used intransitively may have a reciprocal implication, e.g. *they parted in anger / they kiss or quarrel or fight whenever they meet*.

1.1.7 Verbs used as copulas form a fairly large group, of more than fifty: *It seems a pity / he became rich*. Most of them also have other usages: *get, grow, turn*, etc.; in the case of many of them the copula function is not the most important usage: *the well ran dry / his prediction came true / his words rang true / it sounds nice // he made a fine soldier / that proved the case*. In cases such as the last two examples, where the verb may have a substantive attached both as object and as predicative complement (and is therefore ambiguous without its context) the difference between the two usages is shown by the possibility of putting it in the passive; verbs used as copulas do not allow this.

1.1.8 Auxiliary verbs (*have, do, be, will*, etc.) in combination with the infinitive and the participles form compound verbal phrases: *you must go now / he has been killed*.—They may represent large or small parts of the predicate of a preceding sentence: *no man ever hated a woman as he did / no man ever hated a woman as he did his wife / They looked upon him, as painters often do writers, with contempt because he was a layman, with tolerance because he practised an art, and with awe because he used a medium in which they themselves felt ill at ease* (Somerset Maugham) / *she has deceived you as she has me / If a man's house ever fell in ruins about him, mine has about me / treat him as you would a friend*.

The Forms of the Verb

1.2.1 The English verb normally has four forms:

I. The basic form: *like, love, judge, add*.

Function: (a) infinitive, (b) present indicative with the exception of the 3rd pers. sing., (c) imperative, (d) subjunctive.

(1) *Can, may, must, ought, shall, will* have only one of these functions: the present. For semantically corresponding infinitives various expressions are resorted to such as: *I shan't be able to leave / I hate to have to wait / he was sorry to be obliged to leave his home / he seemed to me to want to say something / I don't like to be under an obligation to help people I don't know / it is important for the patient to have the will to live.*

(2) *Be* has three of the functions mentioned, but not the present indicative. The forms of the latter are: 1st pers. sing. *am*, 2nd pers. sing. *are*, 3rd pers. sing. *is*, pl. *are*.

1.2.2 II. The basic form + -s: *likes* /laiks/, *loves* /lʌvz/, *judges* /dʒʌdʒɪz/, *adds* /ædz/.

The suffix is pronounced /s/ after unvoiced sounds, /z/ after voiced-sounds, except after the sibilants /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, where it is pronounced /ɪz/: *kisses* /kɪsɪz/, *uses* /juːzɪz/, *wishes* /wɪʃɪz/, *rages* /reɪdʒɪz/.

Function: 3rd pers. sing. pres. ind.

(1) The addition of -s is combined with a sound change in the verbs *have, do, say*, the 3rd pers. pres. being *has* /hæz/, *does* /dʌz/, *says* /sez/.—N.B. *gainsays* is regular /geɪn'seɪz/.

(2) **Orthography** -es is added after sibilants if the basic form does not end with *e*: *wishes, kisses*; also after single *o*: *goes, does*. After *oo*, on the other hand, the orthography varies; common forms are for instance *woos*, but *cooes*.

Final -y after a consonant is changed to -ie: *marries*, while -y after a vowel is preserved: *buys*.

Gemination is found only in a few cases, namely after a stressed single vowel + final -s or -z: *gasses/quizzes*. *Bias(s)es* and *focus(s)es* are uncertain.

(3) The verbs mentioned in 1.2.1(1), *can*, *may*, etc., do not add a suffix in the 3rd pers. sing.; the same applies to *dare* and *need* when these verbs are followed by an infinitive without *to*: *he dare not go / need anybody know?*—*Don't* for *doesn't* is met with in uneducated speech.—For the irregular present forms of *be* see 1.2.1(2).

1.2.3 III. The basic form + *-(e)d*: *liked* /laikt/, *loved* /lʌvd/, *judged* /dʒʌdʒd/, *added* /ædid/.

The suffix is pronounced /t/ after unvoiced sounds, /d/ after voiced sounds, except after /t/ and /d/, where the pronunciation is /ɪd/: *started* /stɑ:tɪd/, *banded* /hændɪd/.

Function: preterite and past participle.

(1) The addition of /d/ is combined with a sound change in: *bad* /hæd/, *said* /sed/.—N.B. *gainsaid* is pronounced both /gein'seid/ and /gein'sed/. Note also *used* followed by *to* in the preterite to indicate the iterative, etc. in the past, and in the past part. with a corresponding concept: *I used to sing this song / I used to know him / I am used to doing it*. In this usage the pronunciation is /ju:st/ as against inf. *use* /ju:z/, whose /z/ is unchanged in the preterite and past part. in the other usages of the verb.*)

(2) Orthography: *-d* is added after a stem ending in *-e*: *agreed*, *bated*, *pleased*; otherwise *-ed*. If the uninflected form ends in *-y*, the rule mentioned above (1.2.2(2)) applies: *dried*, *married* / *played*, *stayed*. Exceptions are *laid*, *paid*, *said* (N.B. *pay* as a nautical term = 'let out' is regular as to spelling: *a cable is payed out*).

A single final consonant is never doubled after two vowels: *sweated*, *detailed* (N.B. *equalled*, *qu* counting as a consonant combination); but after a single vowel carrying the main stress of the stem: *regretted*, *inferred*.—If the last syllable does not carry the main stress of the stem there is normally no gemination: *visited*, *galloped*. However, *-c* in the ending *-ic* is doubled to *-ck*, although there is no stress on the syllable: *picnicked*, *frolicked*, *trafficked*; likewise *-l*: *travelled*, *labelled*, *libelled*. There is also gemination of the final consonant in an unstressed syllable in a few other words (note in these the unweakened quality of the unstressed vowel): *humbugged*, *worshipped*,

*) *used* to *used* iteratively in the past tense is a special case in the syntactical respect also: like the auxiliary verbs it can be found without the *do* paraphrase in negative and interrogative sentences: *he used not to smoke / used you to do such things?* in addition to expressions with *do*: *I didn't use to be*.—See also 1.8.10.

kidnapped, handicapped, nonplussed.—Uncertainty as to gemination is found in a few words: *bias(s)ed, focus(s)ed*.

(3) A considerable number of verbs have an irregular preterite and/or past participle; see the list in 1.2.6.

Special cases are: *be*, which has two preterite forms: 1st and 3rd pers. sing. indicative *was*, 2nd pers. sing. and the whole of the plural indicative, together with all persons sing. and pl. in the subjunctive, *were*;—and the verbs *can, may*, etc., mentioned in 1.2.1(1) which have no past participle; for semantically corresponding past participles various expressions are resorted to, such as: *he has never been able to walk / she has always been allowed to do what she likes / I have had to sell my books / he has, no doubt, wanted to help you*, and the like.

1.2.4 IV. The basic form + *ing*: *liking, loving, judging, adding*.

Function: present participle and gerund.

Orthography: mute *-e* is dropped: *loving, coming*; but not in *dyeing* (compare *dying*); uncertainty in *ey(e)ing*. *-e* is furthermore preserved in *singeing, swingeing, tingeing* in distinction to *singing*, etc.; but not in *cringing*. Verbs ending in *-oe* keep *-e*: *canoeing, boeing, shoeing*. Verbs in *-ie* change to *-y*: *tying, lying, dying*.

Gemination to the same extent as in the addition of *-ed* (see above 1.2.3(2)): *sweating, sailing / equalling / regretting, inferring / galloping, visiting / trafficking, travelling, worshipping, focus(s)ing*.

1.2.5 In addition to these four normal forms there are certain archaic forms:

3rd pers. sing. present indicative: *-(e)th / (i)θ /*: *loveth, runneth*.

There is a sound change of the stem in *bath / hæθ /*, *saith / seθ /*, *doth / dʌθ /*. (N.B. besides *doth* also *doeth / du:θ /*: *doth* as an auxiliary verb: *the lake doth glitter*; *doeth* as a full verb (non-auxiliary): *he doeth wrong*.)

-(e)st / (i)st / in the 2nd pers. sing. indicative present and past: *helpst, runnest, couldst, brought(e)st*.

N.B. *bast, dost* with sound change of the stem: */ hæst /*, */ dʌst /*; what has been said above of *doth* and *doeth* applies also to *dost* and *doest*.

Some of the verbs mentioned in 1.2.1(1) may take this archaic suffix, e.g. *canst, mayst*.

The forms in *-(e)st* are used only with the pronoun *thou*.

The same applies to the archaic ending *-t*: *art, shalt, wilt, wert, wast*; *wast* and *wert* are used as the indicative and the subjunctive form respectively: *thou wast true to thyself / I would thou wert cold or hot*.

1.2.6 Irregular verbs†):

<i>abide</i>	<i>abode</i>	<i>abode</i>
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Thus when this verb is used archaically in the sense *dwell, remain*: *a man whose name abode on Northumbrian tongues*; but regularly inflected in the combination *abide by* = *be true to*: *he abided by his promises*.

<i>arise</i>	<i>arose</i>	<i>arisen</i>
<i>awake</i>	<i>awoke, awaked</i>	<i>awaked, awoke(n)</i>

The preterite *awaked* is archaic. In the past participle *awoke* is not common, and *awoken* is regarded as incorrect; compare what is said of *wake*.

<i>be</i> (see 1.2.1(2) and 1.2.3(3))	<i>was, were</i>	<i>been</i>
<i>bear</i>	<i>bore</i>	<i>born(e)</i>

In connection with birth the past participle is normally spelt *born*: *born at Rome*; in other senses, and of birth when the verb has an object or is followed in the passive construction by the converted subject, the spelling is *borne*: *he has always borne up well / she has borne him five children / the last child borne by her*.

<i>beat</i>	<i>beat</i>	<i>beaten</i>
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The past participle *beat* is now considered incorrect: *he won't be beat*, but survives in the combination *dead-beat*.

<i>become</i>	<i>became</i>	<i>become</i>
<i>befall</i>	<i>befell</i>	<i>befallen</i>
<i>begin</i>	<i>began</i>	<i>begun</i>
<i>behold</i>	<i>beheld</i>	<i>beheld</i>

A number of verbs have two past part. forms, one with the ending *-en*, one without. In many cases the *-en* forms have only an adjectival

†) Where there is more than one inflected form the one considered commonest is given first. If a form is to be considered rare it is given in brackets.

function (e.g. *drunken, mollen, stricken*), and in some it differs considerably in content from the verb. This applies to the old past part. of this verb: *beholden*, which is found only functioning as a predicative adjective: *I am much beholden to you for your help* (the use of *much* as an intensive adv. is however a reminder of the verbal origin of the word).

*bend**bent**bent*

The regular past part. is however to be found in the archaic phrase *on bended knees*.

*bereave**bereft**bereft*

When the verb is used of matters other than death only this inflection is found: *he was bereft of home and friends / bereft of reason / the blow bereft him of consciousness / are you bereft of your senses*.—Of death, *bereaved* is often used; thus always adjectivally: *a bereaved mother / the bereaved*; with the verbal function there is some uncertainty: *a mother bereft / bereaved of her children // death bereft / bereaved her of him*.

*beseech**besought**besought**bespeak**bespoke**bespoken*

e.g.: *every room is bespoken*; but the past part. *bespoke* is also found, used as the opposite of *ready-made*: *bespoke boots / bespoke goods / a bespoke tailor's shop*.

*bet**bet**bet*

Used thus when the stake is stated: *he bet me five pounds I could not / I have bet five pounds against it / how much has been bet on him*; but otherwise regularly inflected: *they betted a good deal in those days / the money was all betted away*.

*bid**bid**bid*

Used thus in the sense 'make a bid': *he bid up to ten pounds / nothing was bid / . . . a bluff outbid by Mr. M.'s claim that the keynote of Conservatism in the fifties was its relevance*; but otherwise inflected:

*bid**bade**bidden*

I bade him go / he was bidden to go / soldiers must do as they are bidden; the past part. *bid* is however also used in this sense in the expression *do as you are bid*.

<i>bind</i>	<i>bound</i>	<i>bound</i>
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The past part. *bounden* is now used only in the phrase *bounden duty*.

<i>bite</i>	<i>bit</i>	<i>bitten</i>
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The past part. *bit*, however, in *the biter bit*.

<i>bleed</i>	<i>bled</i>	<i>bled</i>
<i>blend</i>	<i>blended (blent)</i>	<i>blended (blent)</i>

In many verbs there has been alternation between an irregular form in *-t* and a regular one in *-ed*. In those cases where the irregular form was merely an orthographic variant it has now been dropped with the exception of *blest* in addition to *blessed* (see below). Even where there is a difference in sound between the variants (e.g. *leaped/leapt* // *learned/learnt* // *spoiled/spoilt*) the regular forms are gaining ground. Different stages of this development are to be seen in the individual verbs.—In the case of *blend* the normal forms are those in *-ed*, but forms in *-t* are still to be found in literary English.

<i>bless</i>	<i>blessed (blest)</i>	<i>blessed (blest)</i>
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In its verbal function the past participle is regular: *he has blessed me with riches*.—As an adjective the past part. form *blessed*, pronounced /blesid/, is used: *the blessed innocence of children* / *every blessed night*, whereas *blest* is used in the sense 'heavenly' or 'saved': *Our blest Redeemer* / *the mansions of the blest* / *I am blest if I know*.

<i>blow</i>	<i>blew</i>	<i>blown</i>
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The past participle *blowed* (slang) = 'damned': *be blowed to them*.

<i>break</i>	<i>broke</i>	<i>broken</i>
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The past part. *broke* = 'ruined' is found in colloquial speech: *I'm broke*.

<i>breed</i>	<i>bred</i>	<i>bred</i>
<i>bring</i>	<i>brought</i>	<i>brought</i>
<i>broadcast</i>	<i>broadcasted</i> (<i>broadcast</i>)	<i>broadcast (broadcasted)</i>

Broadcast illustrates a fact applying to many of the verbs with both regular and irregular preterite and past part. forms, namely that the supplanting of the irregular forms by the regular applies more in the preterite than in the past part. Cp. for instance *burn*, *dream*, *lean*.

<i>build</i>	<i>buil^d</i>	<i>built</i>
<i>burn</i>	<i>burnt (burned)</i>	<i>burnt</i>

The regular preterite is common in the sense 'longed to': *she burned to ask where the boy lived*. (In American English this verb is usually regularly inflected.)

<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>
<i>buy</i>	<i>bought</i>	<i>bought</i>

can (see 1.2.1(1);

1.2.2(3); 1.2.3(3))

<i>cast</i>	<i>cast</i>	<i>cast</i>
<i>catch</i>	<i>caught</i>	<i>caught</i>
<i>chide</i>	<i>chid, chided</i>	<i>chidden, chid, chided</i>

(Regular inflected forms of this verb are preferred in American.)

<i>choose</i>	<i>chose</i>	<i>chosen</i>
<i>cleave (= 'split')</i>	<i>cleaved, clove, cleft</i>	<i>cleaved, cloven, cleft</i>

Note: *cloven foot / hoof / cleft palate / in a cleft stick*.

<i>cleave (= 'stick')</i>	<i>cleaved (clave)</i>	<i>cleaved</i>
<i>cling</i>	<i>clung</i>	<i>clung</i>
<i>clothe</i>	<i>clothed, clad</i>	<i>clothed, clad</i>

In the sense 'cover' or 'provide clothes for' the verb is regularly inflected: *she was fed and clothed at my expense / he clothed his thoughts in words / on a frosty morning the trees are clothed in silver*; but used as a mannered expression instead of *dress*—i.e. of the appearance of the clothing—it is irregularly inflected: *poorly clad / lightly clad / he clad himself in shining armour*.—In addition *clad* occurs in many combinations, such as *snow-clad*.

<i>come</i>	<i>came</i>	<i>come</i>
<i>cost</i>	<i>cost</i>	<i>cost</i>
<i>creep</i>	<i>crept</i>	<i>crept</i>
<i>crow</i>	<i>crowed, crew</i>	<i>crowed</i>

Of the crowing of a cock both preterite forms are used: *the cock crew/crowed*; in other usages only the regular inflection: *he crowed over me*.

<i>cut</i>	<i>cut</i>	<i>cut</i>
<i>dare</i>	<i>dared (durst)</i>	<i>dared</i>

The irregular preterite is used only in archaic language (see 1.3.8).

<i>deal</i>	<i>dealt</i>	<i>dealt</i>
<i>dig</i>	<i>dug</i>	<i>dug</i>
<i>do</i> (see 1.2.2(1))	<i>did</i>	<i>done</i>
<i>draw</i>	<i>drew</i>	<i>drawn</i>
<i>dream</i>	<i>dreamed, dreamt</i>	<i>dreamt, dreamed</i>

In addition to the circumstance mentioned under *broadcast* there is a distinction between *dreamt* as the usual form and *dreamed* in formal usage: *you must have dreamt / you dreamt that, I suppose // the soldier (has) dreamed of home*. In the sense 'imagine', 'believe', the regular form is normally used: *he little dreamed that this was going to happen*.

<i>drink</i>	<i>drank</i>	<i>drunk</i>
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Used adjectivally, *drunk* is predicative: *he is drunk*, but a variant *drunken* is used attributively: *a drunken man / his drunken habits / a drunken frolic*.—In the sense 'habitually drunk', however, *drunken* is also predicative: *he was drunken and dissolute*.

<i>drive</i>	<i>drove</i>	<i>driven</i>
<i>dwell</i>	<i>dwelt</i>	<i>dwelt</i>
<i>eat</i>	<i>ate (eat)</i>	<i>eaten</i>

The preterite form is normally pronounced /et/, rarely /eit/; in American however the latter is the received pronunciation.

<i>fall</i>	<i>fell</i>	<i>fallen</i>
<i>feed</i>	<i>fed</i>	<i>fed</i>
<i>feel</i>	<i>felt</i>	<i>felt</i>
<i>fight</i>	<i>fought</i>	<i>fought</i>
<i>find</i>	<i>found</i>	<i>found</i>
<i>flee, fly</i>	<i>fled</i>	<i>fled</i>

Of the two basic forms, *flee* is formal, *fly* obsolescent in the sense 'run away', being replaced by expressions such as *take flight*.

<i>fling</i>	<i>flung</i>	<i>flung</i>
<i>fly</i>	<i>flew</i>	<i>flown</i>
<i>forbear</i>	<i>forbore</i>	<i>forborne</i>
<i>forbid</i>	<i>forbade, forbid</i>	<i>forbidden</i>
<i>forecast</i>	<i>forecast, forecasted</i>	<i>forecast, forecasted</i>
<i>forget</i>	<i>forgot</i>	<i>forgotten</i>

In American there is a past participle variant *forgot*.

<i>forgive</i>	<i>forgave</i>	<i>forgiven</i>
<i>forsake</i>	<i>forsook</i>	<i>forsaken</i>
<i>freeze</i>	<i>froze</i>	<i>frozen</i>
<i>get</i>	<i>got</i>	<i>got (gotten)</i>

The past part. *gotten* is frequent in American; in English now only in the expression *ill-gotten gains*.

<i>gild</i>	<i>gilded</i>	<i>gilded, gilt</i>
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In its verbal function only the regular inflection. As attributive adjectives the past part. forms are used as follows: Literally, *gilt*: *gilt edges / a book with a gilt top*. Metaphorically and formally, *gilded*: *gilded spurs / the gilded summit of the mountain*.

<i>gird</i>	<i>girded (girt)</i>	<i>girded (girt)</i>
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The irregular forms are now found only in formal English: *silence girt the woods*.—Compare *an island girded by the sea* and *a sea-girt isle*.

<i>give</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>given</i>
<i>go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
<i>grave</i>	<i>graved</i>	<i>graved, graven</i>

The verb is used only in archaic language; note *graven image*.

<i>grind</i>	<i>ground</i>	<i>ground</i>
<i>grow</i>	<i>grew</i>	<i>grown</i>
<i>hang</i>	<i>hung, hanged</i>	<i>hung, hanged</i>

Regular inflection only of execution: *he was hanged for murder / I'll be hanged if I know*.

<i>have</i> (see 1.2.2(1))	<i>had</i>	<i>had</i>
<i>hear</i>	<i>heard</i>	<i>heard</i>
<i>heave</i>	<i>heaved, hove</i>	<i>heaved, hove</i>

The irregular forms are found only in nautical language: *they hove the bodies overboard / a ship hove in sight / the steamer hove to a little*. Otherwise regular: *she heaved a sigh*.

<i>hew</i>	<i>bewed</i>	<i>bewn (bewed)</i>
<i>hide</i>	<i>bid</i>	<i>bidden (bid)</i>

Adjectivally only the past part. *bidden* is used: *a hidden treasure*. In the verbal function *bidden* is the normal form, *bid* as past part. is bookish.

<i>bit</i>	<i>bit</i>	<i>bit</i>
<i>bold</i>	<i>beld</i>	<i>beld</i>
<i>burt</i>	<i>hurt</i>	<i>hurt</i>
<i>keep</i>	<i>kept</i>	<i>kept</i>
<i>kneel</i>	<i>knel't, kneeled</i>	<i>knel't, kneeled</i>

The irregular form is commoner than the regular.

<i>knit</i>	<i>knitted, knit</i>	<i>knitted, knit</i>
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Regular in the literal sense: *She (had) knitted a pair of socks.*
Metaphorically generally irregular: *she knit/knitted her brows // they are closely knit in friendship / the families are knit together by common interests / a well-knit frame / a closely knit argument.*

<i>know</i>	<i>knew</i>	<i>known</i>
<i>lade</i>	<i>laded</i>	<i>laden</i>
<i>lay</i>	<i>laid</i>	<i>laid</i>
<i>lead</i>	<i>led</i>	<i>led</i>
<i>lean</i>	<i>leaned, leant</i>	<i>leaned, leant</i>
<i>leap</i>	<i>leaped, leapt</i>	<i>leapt, leaped</i>
<i>learn</i>	<i>learned, learnt</i>	<i>learnt, learned</i>

Note that the adjective *learned* is pronounced /lɜ:nɪd/: *he looks learned.*

<i>leave</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>left</i>
<i>lend</i>	<i>lent</i>	<i>lent</i>
<i>let</i>	<i>let</i>	<i>let</i>
<i>lie (= 'recline')</i>	<i>lay</i>	<i>lain</i>
<i>light</i>	<i>lit, lighted</i>	<i>lit, lighted</i>

In the literal sense the regular and irregular forms are both common: *he (has) lit/lighted a cigar / lamp / fire.*—As an attributive adjective in the literal sense the regular past part. form is the more usual: *a lighted cigar.*—Metaphorically the verb is mostly irregularly inflected: *her eyes lit up / a smile lit up her face // the face of the old man lighted up*; likewise in many combinations: *star-lit, flood-lit* (but also *flood-lighted*).—*Light* = 'settle', also has both forms: *the snowflake lit/lighted on my hand.*

<i>lose</i>	<i>lost</i>	<i>lost</i>
<i>make</i>	<i>made</i>	<i>made</i>
<i>may</i> (see 1.2.1(1);	<i>might</i>	

1.2.2(3); 1.2.3(3))

<i>mean</i>	<i>meant</i>	<i>meant</i>
<i>meet</i>	<i>met</i>	<i>met</i>
<i>melt</i>	<i>melted</i>	<i>melted (molten)</i>

The irregular past part. form is used only as an attributive adjective, and only of high melting-points: *molten steel, gold, glass, lava* (and even in these cases *melted* also occurs). But only *melted butter, snow*, etc.

<i>mow</i>	<i>mowed</i>	<i>mown, mowed</i>
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As an attributive adjective the past part. is *mown*: *mown grass / new-mown hay*. Verbally both forms are common: *The lawn was mown/mowed yesterday*.

<i>must</i> (see 1.2.1(1); 1.2.2(3); 1.2.3(3))	<i>must</i>
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<i>ought</i> (see 1.2.1(1); 1.2.2(3); 1.2.3(3))	<i>ought</i>
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<i>overcome</i>	<i>overcame</i>	<i>overcome</i>
<i>pay</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>paid</i>
<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>
<i>quit</i>	<i>quitted (quit)</i>	<i>quitted (quit)</i>

Now nearly always regular in standard English; but the preterite and past part. *quit* are found in dialect and American.

<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>
<i>rend</i>	<i>rent</i>	<i>rent</i>
<i>rid</i>	<i>rid (ridded)</i>	<i>rid</i>
<i>ride</i>	<i>rode</i>	<i>ridden</i>
<i>ring</i>	<i>rang (rung)</i>	<i>rung</i>
<i>rise</i>	<i>rose</i>	<i>risen</i>
<i>rive</i>	<i>rived</i>	<i>riven (rived)</i>
<i>run</i>	<i>ran</i>	<i>run</i>
<i>saw</i>	<i>sawed</i>	<i>sawn, sawed</i>

As an attributive adjective only *sawn*: *sawn wood*, in the verbal function *sawn* more often than *sawed*: *wood to be sawn/sawed*.

<i>say</i> (see 1.2.2(1); 1.2.3(1))	<i>said</i>	<i>said</i>
<i>see</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>seen</i>
<i>seek</i>	<i>sought</i>	<i>sought</i>
<i>sell</i>	<i>sold</i>	<i>sold</i>

<i>send</i>	<i>sent</i>	<i>sent</i>
<i>set</i>	<i>set</i>	<i>set</i>
<i>sew</i>	<i>sewed</i>	<i>sewn, sewed</i>

The irregular past part. form is used adjectivally: *handsewn*; used verbally the regular and irregular forms are interchangeable: *she has sewn/sewed a button on.*

<i>shake</i>	<i>shook</i>	<i>shaken</i>
<i>shall</i> (see 1.2.1(1); 1.2.2(3); 1.2.3(3))	<i>should</i>	
<i>shave</i>	<i>shaved</i>	<i>shaved (shaven)</i>

The irregular past part. is used adjectivally: *be well shaven / clean-shaven.*

<i>shear</i>	<i>sheared (shore)</i>	<i>shorn, sheared</i>
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The preterite *shore* is archaic only; in its adjectival function the past part. is *shorn*: *a shorn lamb*; in the verbal function both forms of the past part. are found: *we have shorn/sheared the sheep.*

<i>shed</i>	<i>shed</i>	<i>shed</i>
<i>shine</i>	<i>shone</i>	<i>shone</i>
<i>shoe</i>	<i>shod</i>	<i>shod</i>
<i>shoot</i>	<i>shot</i>	<i>shot</i>
<i>show</i> (<i>sbew</i> / <i>fou</i> /)	<i>showed (shewed)</i>	<i>shown (shewn), showed (shewed)</i>

The forms spelt with *e* are now mannered.—The usual past part. is *shown*, *showed* being infrequent when followed by its object and non-existent in the passive. Cp. the following example from Neville Shute: Pastoral: *He had showed it to a girl, and she had been nice to him about it, and he had contracted to be shown a wild fox and a wild badger.*

<i>shred</i>	<i>shredded (sbred)</i>	<i>shredded (sbred)</i>
<i>shrink</i>	<i>shrank (shrunken)</i>	<i>shrunken (shrunken)</i>

As the preterite, *shrunken* is archaic; the past part. *shrunken* is only used as an adjective: *shrunken limbs / the old man . . . in his wheeled chair . . . strangely shrunken.*

<i>shrive</i>	<i>shrove, shrived</i>	<i>shriven, shrived</i>
<i>shut</i>	<i>shut</i>	<i>shut</i>

<i>sing</i>	<i>sang (sung)</i>	<i>sung</i>
<i>sink</i>	<i>sank (sunk)</i>	<i>sunk (sunken)</i>

The past part. *sunken* is generally used as the attributive adjective: *sunken eyes, cheeks / sunken rocks*; but it does occur predicatively: *his cheeks were sunken / old Barbarossa sunken under the river but still waiting*;—*sunken* has no passive value, this being expressed by *sunk*: *sunk wells, roads*; *sunken ships* are thus 'ships that have sunk'; *sunk ships* are 'ships that have been sunk'.

<i>sit</i>	<i>sat</i>	<i>sat</i>
<i>slay</i>	<i>slew</i>	<i>slain</i>
<i>sleep</i>	<i>slept</i>	<i>slept</i>
<i>slide</i>	<i>slid</i>	<i>slid</i>
<i>sling</i>	<i>slung</i>	<i>slung</i>
<i>slink</i>	<i>slunk</i>	<i>slunk</i>
<i>slit</i>	<i>slit</i>	<i>slit</i>
<i>smell</i>	<i>smelt (smelled)</i>	<i>smelt (smelled)</i>
<i>smite</i>	<i>smote</i>	<i>smitten</i>
<i>sow</i>	<i>sowed</i>	<i>sown (sowed)</i>

Only the past part. *sown* is used adjectivally: *the sown seed*. In the verbal function the past part. has both forms: *he has sown / sowed the field with wheat*.

<i>speak</i>	<i>spoke (spake)</i>	<i>spoken</i>
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The preterite *spake* is archaic only.

<i>speed</i>	<i>sped, speeded</i>	<i>sped, speeded</i>
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In the sense 'succeed' this verb is always irregularly inflected: *I wonder how he (has) sped*. Both forms are used of rapid movement: *the car sped/speeded along the road*.—In the special sense 'increase the speed (of)' only the regularly inflected forms are used: *he speeded up / he speeded up the work*.

<i>spell</i>	<i>spelt, spelled</i>	<i>spelt (spelled)</i>
<i>spend</i>	<i>spent</i>	<i>spent</i>
<i>spill</i>	<i>spilt, spilled</i>	<i>spilt (spilled)</i>

Only the past part. form *spilt* is used as the attributive adjective: *cry over spilt milk*.

<i>spin</i>	<i>spun (span)</i>	<i>spun</i>
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* The preterite *span* is now archaic.

spit	spat (spit)	spat (spit)
split	split	split
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoiled

In the old sense 'plunder', 'rob', the verb is regular: *they spoiled the town*.—In its other sense the verb has both forms: *she spoiled/spoilt the child // the fruit spoiled/spoilt in the hot weather // bad weather spoiled/spoilt my holidays // my appetite was spoiled/spoilt*. As the attributive adjective *spoilt*: *a spoilt child*.

spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang (sprung)	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank (stunk)	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck (stricken)

The past part. *stricken* is used only adjectivally, and mostly in certain phrases: *he was desolated, utterly stricken // stricken to the soul / be stricken in years / a stricken deer / fever-stricken / poverty-stricken / sorrow-stricken / terror-stricken / horror-stricken* (as well as *horror-struck*); note *thunder-struck*.

string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweat	sweated (sweat)	sweated (sweat)

In English almost entirely the regular inflection, but in American the irregular forms are common.

sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled

In the verbal function the past part. *swollen* is commoner than *swelled*: *my face has swollen (swelled)*.—As the adjective *swollen* is the usual form: *a swollen river*. Note the difference between *a swollen head*, with the literal value, and *a swelled head* of 'conceit'.

swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung

<i>take</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>taken</i>
<i>teach</i>	<i>taught</i>	<i>taught</i>
<i>tear</i>	<i>tore</i>	<i>torn</i>
<i>tell</i>	<i>told</i>	<i>told</i>
<i>think</i>	<i>thought</i>	<i>thought</i>
<i>thrive</i>	<i>throve, thrived</i>	<i>thriven, thrived</i>
<i>throw</i>	<i>threw</i>	<i>thrown</i>
<i>thrust</i>	<i>thrust</i>	<i>thrust</i>
<i>tread</i>	<i>trod</i>	<i>trodden (trod)</i>
<i>understand</i>	<i>understood</i>	<i>understood</i>
<i>wake</i>	<i>woke, waked</i>	<i>waked, woken, woke</i>

The resemblance in sound to *break* seems to be making the preterite *woke* and past part. *woken* the commonest forms, but the others given above are still common: *at all hours whether he waked or slept / has baby woke up? / what time do you want to be waked?*

<i>wear</i>	<i>wore</i>	<i>worn</i>
<i>weave</i>	<i>wove (weaved)</i>	<i>woven (weaved)</i>

The regular inflection is not used of actual weaving, and is rare in metaphorical use: *the power structures we have weaved for ourselves* (Manch. Guardian Weekly Oct 13, 1960).

<i>wed</i>	<i>wedded (wed)</i>	<i>wedded (wed)</i>
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In American *wed* is found both as the preterite and the past part.; in English the irregular form can be found, particularly in formal language: *foreigners were wed*. *a sure mark of failure in the English girl who wed them / this is an instance of simplicity wed to beauty.*

<i>weep</i>	<i>wept</i>	<i>wept</i>
<i>will</i> (see 1.2.1(1); 1.2.2(3); 1.2.3(3))	<i>would</i>	

<i>win</i>	<i>won</i>	<i>won</i>
<i>wind</i>	<i>wound</i>	<i>wound</i>

In the sense 'sound' *wind* is also regularly inflected: *he winded / wound the bugle.*

<i>withdraw</i>	<i>withdrew</i>	<i>withdrawn</i>
<i>withhold</i>	<i>withheld</i>	<i>withheld</i>
<i>withstand</i>	<i>withstood</i>	<i>withstood</i>
<i>work</i>	<i>worked (wrought)</i>	<i>worked (wrought)</i>

The irregular inflected forms are found only in certain connec-

tions: (he) wrought destruction, ruin / wrought-up nerves / wrought iron.

wring
write

wrung
wrote

wrung
written

The old past part. *writ* is met with in the phrase *writ large* corresponding to 'only more so': *we think of Brittany as the Scottish Highlands writ large*.

S.C.E R T., West Bengal

Date 21.3.75.....

Acc. No. 2474.....



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The Basic Form

1.3.1 The identity of form shown by most verbs in the infinitive, present (apart from the 3rd pers. sing. indicative), imperative and subjunctive has had certain syntactical consequences:

(1) It has led to co-ordination instead of subordination in certain verbs: *come, try*, etc.: *come and see me!* / *will you come and see me?* / *whenever you come and see me, I feel so small* / *mind and do what you are told!* / *don't go and make a fool of yourself!* / *it is unwise to try and suppress a grievance by threats.* (In the case of *try* educated speech has subordination: *Try to remember . . . that you are not back in Glasgow.*)

That it is the identity of form that makes the co-ordination possible is shown by the fact that corresponding expressions with inflected forms of *come* and *try* permit only subordination: *he comes to see you* / *he came to see you* / *he tried to get a paper.*

(2) The identical form of the subjunctive and the imperative has undoubtedly helped to preserve the subjunctive in a number of cases where the two approximate by position and content: *suffice it to say* / *come wet, come fine*, etc.

1.3.2.1 The verbs *must* and *ought* have only one form, which may be regarded as being chiefly the present-tense form, since these verbs cannot in themselves express the past tense; the past form of a sentence in the present such as *you must know* is *you must have known*; of *you ought to be there by now*, *you ought to have been there*; in other words, the past is expressed with the help of the dependent infinitive form.—Only in connection with a past-tense form elsewhere in the context can these verbs be used to indicate past time: *he said he must go* / *he felt he ought to help her.*

1.3.2.2 The other modal verbs form a certain parallel to this: their preterite forms are often used about the present, and merely express a greater degree of the hypothetical than do the present-tense forms: *he may come back and explain* / *he might come back and explain* both express a present state, and the corresponding past state must be

expressed, as mentioned above, with the aid of the dependent infinitive: *he may have come back / he might have come back*.—However in certain contexts modal verbs having a separate preterite form may also indicate past time in themselves: *In the new religion of Mau Mau it was made clear that the censure on polygamy . . . was not included . . . Nor might you get drunk, drink English beer, or smoke cigarettes.*

1.3.2.3 *Need* may on the one hand be a full verb, regularly inflected: *he needs the money / he needed the money*; on the other hand this verb, followed by an infinitive, may be a modal verb in the lack of *-s* in the 3rd pers. sing. present and the *do* paraphrase: *he need not worry*, as well as in keeping the basic form unchanged as a preterite form dependent on the context, like *must* and *ought*: *I assured him that he need not worry*, and lastly, like all modal verbs, in needing the perfect tense of the dependent infinitive form to indicate past time: *we need not have hurried after all*.

1.3.2.4 *Dare* is much like *need*: as a full verb it is regular: *I am sure he dares / he dared me to do it*. It is treated like a modal verb when it is followed by an infinitive without *to*, that is, it has no *-s* in the 3rd pers. sing. pres. and no paraphrase with *do*: *he dare not go*. (See however **1.3.3.2**.) It may be found unchanged in the past tense: *he felt he dare not reply*. (See **1.8.8**.)

The Infinitive

1.3.3 The present infinitive does not in itself indicate time. The temporal aspect of it is determined by the element governing the infinitive, or by the context. Thus the present infinitive refers to the present in *it does him good to take long walks*; to the future in *I wish we had an invitation to dine out*; to the past in *how very foolish of you to do it!*

The perfect infinitive indicates either (1) what has preceded (of both the future and the past): *I rejoice to have finished it so soon / he is said to have spoken // by the beginning of next week I hope to have seen her*; or (2) the hypothetical: *I thought it wrong to have helped her*.

There is no future infinitive, but in colloquial speech the future of the governing verb is sometimes found as a kind of substitute: *I shall hope to see you tomorrow*.

The passive infinitive: *do you expect the office to be closed* has the

same ambiguity as the passive of perfective verbs in general (cp. 1.1.4), a vacillation in content between state and action.

The expanded infinitive usually expresses what is the commonest value of the expanded forms, namely action of a certain duration, taking place around a point of time: *what can he be doing / what could he be doing / I shall be having breakfast in a minute or two*. But the expanded infinitive combined with *shall* and *will* may also indicate the immediate future: *people will be coming*. The difference between this form and *people will come* is as a rule that the former indicates something more imminent than the latter.

1.3.3.1 The infinitive with and without *to* corresponds in the main to the two sides of the infinitive, the nominal and the verbal; so that the infinitive with *to* is found in positions similar to substantives, adjectives and adverbs: *I want to take a walk / in days to come / I came to see you*;—while the infinitive without *to* is generally closely connected with an auxiliary verb, and forms a single unit with it as regards stress and intonation: *I shall go*.

There has been a considerable shift in this matter since the earliest stages of English, where the infinitive was generally without *to*; when *to* was found in those days the combination still showed fairly clearly the original value of *to*, 'direction', a value that cannot be ascribed to *to* even in cases such as *jealousy drove me to do it*; for in present-day English if *to* has an association of direction it is combined with the *-ing* form instead (see 1.6.7).

1.3.3.2 The infinitive without *to* is used after the auxiliary verbs *do*, *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will*.

In addition *dare* and *need* can, as already stated, act as modal verbs, and as such, like most modal verbs, have an infinitive attached without *to*. But when treated as regular verbs they have an infinitive with *to*.

In accordance with this we find *dare* with the infinitive with *to* after (1) the present participle: *he lay on his face, not daring to look up*, and (2) usually after the 3rd pers. sing. pres. with *-s*: *Now he dares to insult me / (he is so busy urging us to like the Arabs that he never dares tell us what Arab politics are)*; and the infinitive without *to* after 1) the 3rd pers. sing. pres. without *-s*: *I wonder whether he dare try*; 2) *dare* used as the preterite: *her spirit failed. She daren't climb after him / he felt that he daren't venture upon the subject*; 3) after the archaic preterite form *durst*: *in so far as he durst do it*.—There is on the other hand vacillation as to the use of *to* with this verb's 1) infinitive, 2) preterite *dared*, and 3) past participle: *he wouldn't dare to try / did one, anyhow, dare let the*

house // he dared to do what he knew was right / he dared go // he had dared to flout Angus / I have never dared ask him.

In the case of *need*, the use of *to* follows the distinction: modal verb as against regular verb: *not needing to hurry, I walked leisurely / he has never needed to hurry / he need not hurry / need you go now / that is all that needs to be said / that is all that need be said / they were full of energy that needed to be spent / Sunday; a day on which no one need get up early, and huge meals were eaten all day.*

1.3.3.3 The infinitive without *to* is used after the expressions *had best, had better; would rather, had rather; would sooner; you had best go at once / you had better go now / he had rather go than stay behind / I would much rather not go / I would sooner die than consent to such a plan.*

1.3.3.4 In addition the infinitive without *to* is found in a number of more or less stock phrases: *go bang: let things go bang;—go fetch (to a dog).* These two expressions are quite unvarying.

The governing verb may on the other hand be inflected in a number of phrases: *make believe: let's make believe that we're explorers in the forests of Africa / he made believe that he was rich;—make do: she had to make do with one maid;—bear say: I've heard say that he has left;—bear tell: I've heard tell of him;—let drop: my uncle was said to have let drop this remark;—let fall: he let fall a hint;—let go: let go of the rope;—let slip: you mustn't let slip such an opportunity;—let drive: he drew his sword and let drive at me;—let fly: he let fly a torrent of abuse at me.*

In colloquial speech *help* is also followed by the infinitive without *to*: *you must help wash up*; but literary English here uses the infinitive both with and without *to*: *A Commonwealth association can help to create a peaceful climate for dealing with things like the Kashmir question / heparin, the anti-coagulant which the blood itself produces to help keep the blood in a fluid state / gestures . . . helped make his whole manner simple and direct.*

1.3.3.5 We also find the infinitive without *to* in elliptical constructions: *I ask his pardon! / why not go at once? / she know the meaning of life!*—where modal verbs, which are combined with the infinitive without *to*, can easily be imagined added.

After *than* we often find an infinitive loosely connected with a

preceding verbal expression. Here the infinitives generally lack *to*: *he resigned rather than stifle his conscience / that organisation has done a great deal to keep fares up, rather than let them find their own level as the result of the forces of supply and demand // Should Mr G. be invited again to write a book for children, he could do no better than to model his approach on that of S.*

1.3.3.6 The second of two co-ordinate infinitives has no *to* if the first has not: *I'll do anything to show my gratitude but marry the daughter / you can't do better than go.*

But if the first infinitive has *to* there is vacillation in the case of the second: *we have nothing to do but (to) enjoy ourselves / I wished to finish my business and (to) get away / I hoped to draw him into the open and (to) settle with him.*—The decisive factor is the closeness of the connection. If contrast or emphasis is connoted by such infinitives, *to* must be repeated: *it was better to laugh than to cry / to be or not to be.*—The repetition or omission of *to* in such cases may often be a question of style—a lingering versus a rapid style: *Bismarck once said that, however much the Germans might profess to dislike and to despise the English, there was not a German that would not be secretly pleased to be taken for an Englishman* (English Essays of To-Day p. 6—O.U.P. 1936) / *time wherein we could be and think and dream all that each busy, bugged-mugged, feverish, precipitate twenty-four hours would not allow us to be or to think or dream* (ibid. p. 45).

As regards repetition of *to* with the second of two infinitives the wish to avoid the split infinitive*) may play a part: *the power to understand and fully sympathize with him.*

1.3.3.7 With certain verbs followed by an object + infinitive *to* is always omitted; *I let him go*; thus also after *bear, watch, make, behold, notice, observe, perceive.*

But with many verbs there is with this construction vacillation

*) By this is meant the construction where an adverb is inserted between *to* and the infinitive. The construction is by no means rare, but is regarded with disapproval by many. One should try to avoid both extremes—that of using it unnecessarily, and that of avoiding it at any price.

Fear of the split infinitive can lead to ambiguous expressions such as: *it will, when better understood, tend firmly to establish relations between Capital and Labour / he failed entirely to comprehend it.*—The split infinitive is however commonly found in certain connections: *to almost succeed is not enough / I don't expect to ever see him again / I wish to utterly forget my past / it's a sad experience to always live from hand to mouth / to fully comprehend, and so on.*—Certain adverbs however can never be placed between *to* and the infinitive: *only, merely, not.*

as to the use of *to* before the infinitive, e.g. *bid, have, feel, see, find*: *bid him come in / he caused a new service-book to be prepared, and bade the Scottish ministers to use it // I'll have you love him in a different way / I shall have him (to) do it // I saw him come / seeing the three figures to be those of his friends, he hastened forward // you'll never find him (to) neglect his work.*—With these verbs the infinitive without *to* is regarded as the more correct.

There is likewise vacillation with *help* and *know*: *help him (to) find his things // I've never known him make such a frightful ass of himself since that night / she had never known a patient to receive so many flowers.*—With these two verbs the infinitive with *to* is preferred.

It may also be noted that, in the case of all the above-mentioned verbs where there is vacillation, the tendency to use *to* is much more pronounced if the infinitive in the construction is the verb *be* than if it is the infinitive of some other verb; compare: *I felt my heart beat as against I felt it to be true // I know him to be a friend / we found him to be dishonest.*

Furthermore, in so far as these verbs with an object + infinitive are to be found in the passive, they have *to* with the infinitive in this construction, even though it is lacking in the active construction: *he was made to go there / he was heard to sneeze / he was seen to come.*—Only the stock combinations of *let* + infinitive mentioned in 1.3.3.4 do not acquire *to* in the passive construction: *she'd said nothing about his recent non-appearances at the Welches', nor had any disintegrating question or avowal been let fall.*

1.3.3.8 With verbs of sensation the object + infinitive construction is more or less interchangeable with the object + present participle: *I saw (watched, heard, etc.) him come / I saw (etc.) him coming.* The difference in content is the same as that between simple and expanded verbal forms: *she heard the door slam, and her mother running angrily up the area steps.*

1.3.4.1 The infinitive with *to* is used:

As subject and predicative complement: *to err is human / to see her is to love her*; in content the infinitive here approaches the gerund: *talking mends no holes / to talk mends no holes*; but while the gerund refers chiefly to the action in general, the infinitive refers chiefly to the particular occasion: *to delay is dangerous* (i.e. 'in the situation in question') / *that was why not to watch her seemed impossible* (i.e. 'on that particular occasion').

In former times the infinitive without *to* was also used in this way, and occasional relics of the usage are to be found, supported by association with phrases where the infinitive appears without *to*: *better bend than break / better ask than go astray // kill or be killed, eat or be eaten, was the law / all I can do is trust the men*;—the first two phrases are undoubtedly supported by parallel expressions using *had better* + infinitive, which lacks *to*, and the third by the imperative.—Compare the first two examples with the following: *Better to cease to be a Napoleon than be a Napoleon in exile*, where the sentence in its explicit form would be something like: ‘It was better to cease . . .’

1.3.4.2 As object: *I want to go / I like to get up early / I planned to go.*

Where the infinitive with *to* is the complement of the verb (and in the cases mentioned in **1.3.4.4**, where the infinitive is the complement of an adjective) *to* can in colloquial speech as a connecting element be found in elliptical constructions representing *to* + infinitive: *I shall go; he does not want to / she opened the window, though I had told her not to / I think you ought to*. Compare the corresponding forms of expression in more formal style: *Sinners should not wait for revivals. Christ nowhere tells them to do so*; or: *the time had come when it would be quite all right for her to enter the room as briskly and cheerfully as she used / Have you seen a doctor? . . . But you really ought.*

The infinitive as object is interchangeable with the gerund with the difference mentioned above (**1.3.4.1**); compare: *I like getting up early* and *I should like to get up early tomorrow*. It may further be noted that the infinitive is necessarily regarded as having the same subject as the governing verb: *I hate to trouble you* thus necessarily means *I hate that I . . .*, while in *I hate . . . -ing* the gerund may have another subject, e.g. ‘*Don’t lie to me! I hate lying.*’

For *to* + infinitive in ‘accusative with infinitive’: *I want you to go*, see **1.3.6**.

1.3.4.3 As a complement with some auxiliary verbs: *be, have, ought, used*: *we were to meet here / I had to go / you ought to help him / I used to live there.*

1.3.4.4 As a complement of many adjectives: *I am glad to see you / ready to go / eager to go // the question is difficult to answer*. In this usage the infinitive is not interchangeable with the gerund; only

worth is followed by this verbal form, not by the infinitive: *this is worth doing*.—For *busy* + *-ing*-form, see 1.6.

1.3.4.5 Functioning as an adjective: *this never-to-be-forgotten day*; in this use however the infinitive most often follows the substantive: *in a way never to be forgotten / the life to come / he is not a man to do things by halves / this is the only thing to do / the best thing to do / a mother to be*.

1.3.4.6 In elliptical expressions: *to think that all is in vain!*—, where the implied governing phrase would require the infinitive with *to*, e.g. *it is strange to think . . .*.—For elliptical expressions with the infinitive without *to*, see 1.3.3.5.

1.3.4.7 The infinitive with *to* is furthermore found loosely attached to the sentence with the value of an adverbial phrase: *to see him, one would think that he is a fool / I shudder to think of it*.—Among these adverbial infinitives may be specially noted the infinitive expressing intention: *I came here to see you*. In these cases *to* is interchangeable with *in order to*; not always with the same implication, however: *his wife brought him home to be nursed* can according to the context mean either 'that he might be nursed' or 'that she might be nursed', but the same sentence with *in order to* can only mean 'that she might be nursed', since the object + *to* + infinitive can form a nexus, while the object + *in order to* + infinitive cannot.—An infinitive with *not* is more apt to be preceded by *in order to* than merely by *to* when intention is to be expressed; compare: *he came into the room to disturb me* with *he stole out of the room in order not to disturb me*; these would be the commonest forms of expression, though the reverse distribution of *to* and *in order to* would also be possible.—*So as to* approximates closely to *in order to*, though the former also involves a resultative concept, i.e. 'intended result': *I steered so as to get into the harbour*.

1.3.5 Active versus passive infinitive:

The active form of the infinitive and active content, passive form and passive content, generally go together in modern English: *I like to teach / I like to be taught*; but after the verbs *be*, *leave*, *remain* we find a number of cases of the active form of the infinitive with passive content.—In many cases only one form is now idiomatic, either the active or the passive form being used for the passive content: *the key was nowhere to be found / the causes were not far to seek // you are to*

blame (= 'the fault lies with you') / *the house is to let*. By slight alterations in the last-mentioned phrases however the passive form can be made to express almost the same content: *you are to be blamed for your negligence* / *the house is to be let or sold*.

There is vacillation between the active and passive form for passive content in some phrases: *there is only one thing to do* / *to be done* // *there is nothing to fear* / *to be feared* // *there is a lot to do yet* / *to be done yet* // *there was no time to lose* / *to be lost*.—There is often a slight difference in content between these two possibilities: the active form implies duty, necessity, and the like, the passive form possibility, as in: *the corrections show how much remains to do* / *there is nothing to be done about it*; the following examples do not seem to support this however: *presently she put him down, for there was much to be done* / *the agreement will lessen tension between the two countries, but its ultimate effect on the peace of Europe is yet to know* // *here were all things that children could desire, hay to make, chickens to feed, bullfinches to tame, fields to roam, flowers to love, ripe apples to drop about the head*.—In the final example the active form's implication of duty, etc. might perhaps be considered to be associated with the first delights enumerated, but not with those following, and the active form is undoubtedly preferred here as being stylistically easier, since it can be paralleled with the final infinitive, which cannot of course be interpreted as having a passive content.

The active form of the inf. with passive content is found as the complement of many adjectives: *the food was not fit to eat*. Note in particular *easy, difficult, hard*: *a question difficult to answer*; the passive form of the inf. is here infrequent: *It was good that new blood should strengthen the old families . . . but it was . . . a foreign introduction, difficult to be assimilated*.

Accusative*) with Infinitive

1.3.6.1 Let us take the sentence: *he left his wife to deal with the creditors*. If the subject of the infinitive, here is the subject of the governing verb there is no 'accusative with infinitive', but a case of *to* + infinitive loosely attached with the value of an adverbial phrase (**1.3.4.7**). If on the other hand the subject of the infinitive is the

*) As can be seen from the examples in the following paragraphs, the accusative is a substantive or a pronoun; but *there* may also have this function: *nor do we want there to be too rigid a conformity in regard to the means of attaining our very simple ideal*.

object of the governing verb,†) we have an 'accusative with infinitive'; the same applies in cases such as *he asked me to go* / *she saw him come*. It may be noted that there are often two possible connotations; in *I hate you to talk like that*, *you* may be regarded as the object of *hate* and *to talk like that* as the adjunct of *you* (meaning roughly 'I hate you when you say things like that'); but *you to talk like that* may also be regarded as a nexus, and this unit as the object of *hate* (i.e. roughly 'I hate it when you say things like that'). Only the second possibility exists in cases such as *they supposed him to be dead* / *I've forbidden it to be mentioned before the servants*. This difference, between the accusative with infinitive as a nexus and the accusative with infinitive where the accusative can be regarded separately as the complement of the governing verb, is important, since certain verbs are connected with both types of complement, and others only with one.

1.3.6.2 The verbs connected with the accusative with infinitive are verbs expressing volition, cognition or perception‡); throughout the centuries these verbs have had as complement both *that*-clauses and the accusative with infinitive. The general tendency has been as follows: *that*-clauses predominated in the earliest stages of the language; the accusative with infinitive gained ground rapidly through classical influence, and was in early modern English used more widely than now, when *that*-clauses are regaining their position, particularly in informal speech. Matters are further complicated by the fact that accusative + active infinitive and accusative + passive infinitive are not used to the same extent (see 1.3.6.7).

1.3.6.3 Of the verbs expressing volition, *want* is found only with the accusative + infinitive in modern standard English: *he wants me to go*.—(*That*-clauses: *I wanted (that) you should go* are found only in dialect.)

Other verbs of volition having only accusative with infinitive and not the *that*-clause are: *cause*: *it is the gravitation of the water which causes it to flow*;—*dislike*: *the English dislike their houses to be*

†) or the complement of a preposition attached to the finite verb or its dependent nominal elements: *you may count on him to come* / *I long for you to come* // *he gave orders for the work to be started* / *the economic condition of the country will make it impracticable for there to be any widespread provision of health centres*.

‡) Other verbs formerly had the accusative with infinitive, but now have only the *that*-clause, e.g. *say*, *fear*, *promise*: *It were great Malice, to say him to be a Man of no Principles* (OED 1706).

conspicuous;—force: *they forced him to sign a paper*;—like: *I don't like women to hunt*.

Ask takes the accusative with infinitive in those cases where the accusative in itself can be the complement of the verb: *ask him to come*, but in modern English does not take the accusative with infinitive as a nexus. Thus in modern English the form of expression is: *he asked that I might be allowed to go*; but in former times the accusative with infinitive was used in cases of this kind: *we ask the heritage to be restored to us*.

Other verbs of volition following the same pattern as *ask* are: *command*: *the officer commanded his men to fire // the Queen has commanded that the specimens be submitted to her*;—*enjoin*: *they enjoined him to be careful // they enjoined that something should be done*;—*order*: *he ordered me to stay in bed // I ordered that the gate should remain locked*;—*recommend*: *I recommend you to do what he says // he recommended that the camp should be moved*;—*request*: *they requested the visitors not to touch the exhibits // they requested that the next meeting should be on Russian soil*.

With certain verbs of volition a *that*-clause is used if the verb has durative value, but the accusative with infinitive if it has perfective value (and is thus more or less synonymous with *ask*): *he desires that you should see him // she desired me to write a poem* (where *desire* is roughly equivalent to 'feel desire' and 'request' respectively).

Other verbs of volition obeying the same rules are: *pray*: *I prayed that He would spare me this humiliation // I pray you to think again*;—*require*: *the poet's character requires that he should observe every condition // they required me to keep silent*;—*wish*: *I wish you would be quiet // I wish you to leave now*.

1.3.6.4 Verbs connoting conception (or the expression of conception) nowadays act on the rule that if the verb of the complement is a form of *to be* the accusative with infinitive is generally found in formal speech, while the *that*-clause has superseded this construction in ordinary English. If the complement has verbs other than *to be* only the *that*-clause can now be used: *believe*: *I believe this to be a mistake // we believe that this fear is mistaken // I believe he has left*;—*consider*: *we consider him to be very clever // we consider that you are not to blame // the English like to consider that they have a particular sentiment of 'home'*;—*declare*:

Sir W. declared it to be impossible to grant an increase // he declared that he was innocent // they declared that they would resist any attempt;—fancy: we must fancy our hero to be a handsome young fellow // do you fancy that it's all right? // I rather fancy that he won't come;—imagine: imagine yourself to be on a desert island // imagine you've been shipwrecked // don't imagine that I can lend you money every time you need it;—judge: I judged him to be about sixty years of age // we judged that it was better to start at once // some judge that it does not attain its full size until twenty-five years;—know: I know it to be true // I know (that) it is true // I know (that) he has left;—maintain: pain and pleasure I maintain to be the first perceptions of children // he maintains that this is real happiness // he maintains that war can never bring advantages to a state;—suppose: I suppose him to be dead // I suppose that he is dead // I suppose that he has died;—suspect: I suspect him to be a liar // I suspect that he is a liar // I suspect that he learned this from somebody else;—think: I thought this to be the case // I thought (that) this was the case // I thought (that) he had died.

With *expect* circumstances are rather more complicated, in that it acts as above when used in the sense 'require, suppose': *I expect you to be punctual // I expect that you are punctual // The Tories on Tuesday expected that Sir Winston would announce the increase . . .*, but in the sense 'look forward to, anticipate' has only the accusative with infinitive: *Don't expect me to be back tomorrow.*

1.3.6.5 In their true sense verbs of perception have the accusative with infinitive: *I felt the earth shake*; but on shifting to resultative value these verbs behave much like the verbs connoting (the expression of) conception (1.3.6.4); that is, the complement is on the way to becoming, or has become, a *that*-clause: *I felt it to be true // I felt that it was true // I felt that he had told the truth.*

Other examples are: *find: we found him to be dishonest // we found that he was dishonest // I find that I have lost everything;—hear: I hear him come // I hear that it is true // I hear that he has become engaged;—perceive: I perceived the figure to be a woman // I perceived that it was a woman // he perceived that this left him no hope;—see: I saw*

him come // I saw that it was impossible // I saw that we had lost everything.

1.3.6.6 In the case of verbs connoting (the expression of) conception we have seen (1.3.6.4 f.) that *to be* is found in the acc. + infin. construction to a greater extent than other verbs; here there is undoubtedly approximation to the construction: object + predicative complement of the object. Thus with these verbs there are three possibilities with regard to the form of their complements: (1) object + predicative complement of the object. This construction after these verbs expresses an evaluation, placing within a scale.—(2) Accusative + infinitive. This construction connotes something current, i.e. a non-durative conception or change.—(3) *that*-clauses. This construction connotes condition, state, i.e. a durative conception

Examples:

believe: I could not believe Augustus the murderer // I believe this to be a mistake // people used to believe that the earth was flat;—consider: I consider him a fool // I consider this last act to be the crowning folly // We consider that you are not to blame;—feel: we have never felt ourselves their masters // he felt her hand to be trembling // he felt that he was dying;—find: we found the beds quite comfortable // eventually we found him to be dishonest // I find that I am a failure;—hold: Think more nobly of the Dionysian 'beautiful letters' than to hold them the mere 'rhetoricians' tools' // If you go there I shall hold you to be a greater fool even than your brother // Plato held that the soul is immortal;—imagine: imagine yourself King of England / the rescuer of your country / a traitor // In a case like this imagine yourself to be your brother // he always imagined that his brother was his superior;—judge: you judged me a fitting comrade // I judged him to be about sixty years of age // we judged that it was better to start at once;—know: she knew herself a light woman // at that moment I knew him to be honest / a liar // I know that he is an honest man / a liar;—think: The King's dignified behaviour on the scaffold made many people think him a martyr // no one then thought a woman to be a fit person to rule the kingdom // I always thought that there was something queer about him.

1.3.6.7 It may further be noted that the accusative + passive infinitive may be used more widely than the accusative + active infinitive: *he ordered the gate to be locked*; the corresponding construction with the active infinitive has been superseded by the *that*-clause: *he ordered that the gate should remain locked*.—Compare likewise *I believed the whole thing to have been pre-arranged* as against: *I believe that he killed his wife intentionally*.

1.3.6.8 Corresponding to the accusative with infinitive we find passive constructions with nominative + infinitive: *I allowed him to go / he was allowed to go // I saw him come / he was seen to come*.—It is to be noted that nominative + infinitive always has *to* (the only exceptions are certain phrases with *let* (cp. **1.3.3.7**): *one hint was let drop*). It may further be noted that the nominative with infinitive is used more extensively than the accusative with infinitive, in so far as many active expressions where only the *that*-clause is possible appear in the passive with nominative + infinitive: *he was supposed to have died* as against: *I suppose (that) he has died // he is said to be a miser* as against: *they say that he is a miser*. Other examples are: *he is acknowledged to be the cleverest boy in the class / he was claimed to be the best tennis player in the school / deer forests have been found to pay better than sheep grazing / this material is warranted to be pure silk*.

1.3.6.9 It will be seen from the above examples that the accusative with infinitive, though this sentence-member must often be regarded as a nexus as far as content is concerned (e.g. *I hate you to talk like that*; see **1.3.6.1**), yet is not an inseparable unit as the object of the verbs in question, seeing that only the accusative is moved into the subject's position in the corresponding passive construction, while the infinitive remains after the main verb.—A similar separation of the members takes place when the accusative is a relative pronoun: *a statement which we happen to know to be mistaken*.

The most frequent cases of the accusative with infinitive forming an inseparable unit and acting as a substantive in its entirety, are the combinations *for* + substantive or pronoun + *to* + infinitive: *it is unheard of for any government to enter into negotiations with coldblooded murderers / all that I want is for somebody to be thinking about me / ever since the establishment of a standard language there has been a tendency for words from regional dialect to be introduced*. In these cases the whole combination can be

moved to the beginning of the sentence: *for me to back out now would be to acknowledge that I am afraid / for you to call would be the correct thing / he said very little to her, and he was so quiet that for him to speak at all was a wonderful thing.*

Another case of the acc. + inf. showing a similar degree of independence as a substantival unit is to be found in the following example: *I was quite prepared to see something tremendous happen, the sun to dance or the earth to heave*, where the spaced acc. + inf. phrases are not co-ordinate with *something happen*, but are in apposition to *something*.

The Imperative

1.3.7.1 The subject of the imperative is in most cases 'you', expressed or implicit, but can be something else; when *you* is added this pronoun is now placed in front of the imperative: *you go and do it!*—but formerly placed after it; this order is preserved in a few stock expressions: *mark you / mind you!*—Indefinite pronouns as the subject of an imperative, such as *everybody, somebody, someone*, may be placed either before or after: *go somebody! / somebody go and do it!*

You, when expressed, in most cases connotes contrast ('not some other person'): *I don't know what to do. Norah, you go!*—In addition *you* is attached to an imperative expressing threat, 'superior knowledge' or 'well-meant advice': *you mark my words! It's a certainty / It'll never work.—You wait and see!*

1.3.7.2 The imperative always refers to the future; the ambiguity so often found in connection with *have* or *be* + the past participle of verbs connoting change (see 1.1.2 and 1.1.4)—change and the resultant condition respectively—is not attached to the imperative of these combinations: *have done with such nonsense! / be gone! / study your failures and be instructed by them! / don't be swayed by such considerations*; the verbal phrase here expresses only change.

1.3.7.3 *Please* can have suffered such marked weakening of significance that it may be difficult to place the word grammatically. When combined with a following infinitive it must still be recognized as an imperative: *please (to) return the book soon*; when it stands alone it can either be taken as a subjunctive, i.e. 'if you please', or more plausibly as an interjection: *yes, please / please, come tomorrow / come tomorrow, please.*

The Subjunctive

1.3.8 Finally, the basic form is in the 3rd pers. sing. in the present tense a distinctive subjunctive form as against the corresponding indicative form with the *s*-suffix; *be* is a distinctive subjunctive form in the whole of the present tense as against the indicative forms *am*, *are*, *is*. Further, *were* functions as a past subjunctive as against *was* in the 1st and 3rd pers. indic. ; as does the archaic *durst* as against *dared*.

In early modern English *be* might function as a present indicative plural form: *Lord, what fools these mortals be* (Shakespeare: *Midsummer Night's Dream*, III, ii, 115). This is still met with in the phrase *the powers that be* (= 'those in authority'), a quotation from the Bible (Rom. XIII, 1), e.g. *Sir Winston has become the most famous Englishman alive. But Bertie Russell runs him a close second after a lifetime at loggerheads with the powers that be.*

1.3.8.1 The subjunctive in principal clauses cannot be said to be living in modern English, but only to occur in more or less stock phrases. In content these belong to two types:

(1) expressions enjoining or exhorting: *suffice it to say / the drama of morality is growing. Witness the plays by Mr Shaw.*—The position of these subjunctives at the beginning of the sentence, together with their content, brings them close to imperatives, which no doubt explains the preservation of such expressions.—The same concept is now otherwise expressed by *let* + infinitive.

(2) the expression of wishes: *God save the Queen / long live the King / God bless you / Thy Kingdom come / Heaven forbid / God damn you / The Devil take him*; the living form of expression of this concept is otherwise *may* + infinitive.

1.3.8.2 The subjunctive in subordinate clauses:

(1) In concessive subordinate clauses without a conjunction, e.g.: *come what may, I'll help you / cost what it may, we'll go there / home is home, be it ever so homely / be that as it may, we'll stick to our plan.* Only the subjunctive form *be* can here be regarded as living, and that only in formal speech: *be he who he may, he has no right here.* In the case of other verbs this use of the subjunctive is found only in stock phrases; and even expressions with *be* often belong to this category.

(2) The subjunctive in object clauses: *we desire that this privilege be extended to others / it is my ardent wish that he come at once / your advice that she wait till next week, is reasonable / Jones suggested that Smith show this to his wife.* This use of the subjunctive belongs to

legal and formal language.—In American it occurs not infrequently in literary language.

(3) In conditional and concessive subordinate clauses beginning with a conjunction: *so long as a volume bold together, I am not much troubled as to its outer appearance / if this rumour be true or not, we cannot remain here / Though everyone desert you, I will not / If we be in time, we shall find him at home / I would do it if I durst*. This use of the subjunctive is found only in formal English; ordinary speech would here use indicatives: *holds, is, deserts, are, dared*, or expressions with modal verbs + infinitive.

1.3.8.3 The only living use of the subjunctive in ordinary English is the use of *were*:

(1) in conditional subordinate clauses without a conjunction, but with inversion: *were he to ask me, it would be different*; this is a somewhat literary form of expression; the natural expression uses a conjunction and normal word order (see (3) below).

(2) in object clauses with an unreal content: *(I) would I were there! / I wish I were dead / Well, lifts were very convenient—she wished there were one to her own flat / she took no notice of Louise, pretending . . . that Louise were already gone*.

(3) in conditional and concessive clauses with a conjunction, with an unreal content: *if I were to propose, would you accept? / even though he were here, I should say the same thing / it isn't as if he were poor / he speaks as if he were unaware what he is talking about / she looks as if she were fainting / she looked as if she were fainting*.

Note that *were* as a living subjunctive does not denote time but only unreality (see particularly the last two examples given above).

With verbs other than *be* the unreal content of such sentences is expressed by using the preterite for the present; compare *if he loves me, he would love my dog* as against *if he loved me, he would love my dog*.—With *be* it is possible to express three degrees of uncertainty: *if it is/was/were true, I should know it*.—For the use of the pluperfect for expressing unreality see **1.7.4.2**.

The Suffix -s

1.4 Since the suffix is distinctive as to number, person, and mood, its function involves certain problems regarding concord and the use of the subjunctive. The same problems also apply to a few irregular verbal forms, which have therefore been included in this account: *is* as against *are*, and *was* as against *were*.

For the use of the subjunctive see **1.3.8**.

The number of the verb is of interest both in syntactical combinations where several members in a given context may be regarded as the subject, and in those cases where difference in number between the form and the content of the subject may lead to vacillation between sing. and plur. of the verb. ^{*)}

In the following paragraphs only the most important types of concord problems are included. Examples like the following, though by no means infrequent, are not dealt with: *'Just a few looks much better' / Indeed the finiteness of time and space almost compel us, of themselves, to picture the creation . . . / Good luck aided by some cigarettes help me through the frontier / It was a period that took sensual pleasure in stuffs, when fifty guineas worth of silk were cut to swing and rustle round a single pair of legs*. In the first example the content of the subject is 'the fact of having just a few in a vase'; in the others the linguistic feeling of the speaker has been sidetracked by obvious false attractions.

1.4.1 The linguistic attitude may vacillate when the speaker is confronted with two or more substantives connected by certain conjunctions and prepositions: now the entire combination is felt to be the subject of the verb, now only one of the members. This is the case when two substantives are connected by (*together*) *with*, *as well as*,

^{*)} Corresponding number problems are also apparent in pronouns. Thus in the following examples the conflict between a substantive's form and content has led to the replacement of the 'representative singular' by expressions of the plurality represented: *The chaffinch is always with us. So abundant is it throughout the year that it is difficult to realise that many of those we see in winter are immigrants from Northern Europe / The profession of writing gives reputation to a man which is often greater than his due, and people of ability will listen respectfully to the opinions of a lesser person than themselves merely because he has printed a book. I am afraid of this tribute to the author. It may make us, a much assorted crowd, esteem ourselves more highly than we are naturally prone to do.*

no less than; here the 'correct' construction is that of using the singular of the verb: *Winifred with the children was tied to the little flat in London / Menin Rd where I together with many others was gassed / Justice as well as mercy allows it / the girl as well as the boys has learned to ride*.—In careless language the plural is met with: *the captain with half-a-dozen more were taken prisoner*.

When two or more substantives are linked by *and* or immediately juxtaposed the verb is in the sing. or plur. according to the content, that is, generally in the plural: *the grass and heather were dusty with long drought / in my heart are peace and goodwill / I didn't even know it was Liverpool at first. The main thing was to know WHO I was—where and when were easy enough to find out later / his attitude, his smile were Byronic / He had flushed up and left the room without answering. The conversation, the case were typical of many others / the statesman and the generous, warm-hearted man were again revealed in Birkenhead's speech // all the might and power of Japan have not been able to crush China / the familiar joys of walking grounds where every tree and rock are rooted in the memories that make up my life*.—The singular of the verb is found in cases such as: *a cart and horse was seen at a distance / my colleague and friend is near death's door*, where the subjects linked express a single concept (i.e. 'a vehicle', 'So-and-so'); *there was biscuit left in their saddle-bags and some sausages / There was a church and a grove of trees and then the little old row of houses*, where only the first part of the subject was included in the idea when the verb was stated, the rest of the subject being an addition with ellipsis of the verb; *the author, the wit, the partisan, the fine gentleman, does not take the place of the man*, where the substantives given represent separate possibilities, so that *or* and not *and* would have been the conjunction linking the words if it had been expressed.

There is however some vacillation; compare cases such as: *the horse and cart were gone / the liver and bacon were ready* with the examples already quoted.

In the case of conjunctions having a disjunctive value, such as *not only . . . but (also) / or / either . . . or / neither . . . nor / partly . . . partly*, number difficulties occur when the subjects linked differ in number; the usual solution is to let the verb agree in number with the nearer of the two subjects: *not only the children are ill, but also the mother / not only arms and arts, but man himself has yielded to the pen /*

either the mayor or the aldermen are to blame / neither the girls nor John is to blame.

Where the disjunctive value of *or* is weak there may be vacillation in number: *a word or two is (are) needed here*; the combination *one or two* = *a few* always takes the plural: *there are one or two subjects on which you are bound to have but one opinion.*

1.4.2 Subject and predicative complement with different number:

In this construction subject and verb now agree: *a man is thousands of different persons / her children are her sole care / her principal anxiety was her children / the chief curse is taxes.*—But the earlier form was: *his pavilion round about him were dark waters and thick clouds of the skies* (Psalms 18. 11) / *the wages of sin is death.*—If however the subject is one of those plural forms to which a singular concept may be attached, cases such as the following can be found: *the Highlands was clearly the most promising place to begin / the Middle Ages was in this and other things the age of volunteers / two pounds was a large sum in Captain Brown's annual disbursements.* (Compare the substantives mentioned in 1.4.3 ff.)

1.4.3 When the subject is a substantive in the plural the conflict in number between form and content may give rise to concord problems in the following cases:

(1) Quoted words in the plural take only the singular form of the verb: *'mice' is the plural of 'mouse' / 'riches' now takes a plural verb.*

Titles of books, etc. in the plural take only a singular verb if the title can only be regarded as a name: *The 'Liars' was produced yesterday at the Criterion.*—If the plural form of the title denotes a literary production in the plural, the plural of the verb is usual: *The Canterbury Tales contain some poorer stories / The Pickwick Papers were designed for the introduction of diverting characters / The Last Essays of Elia were published in 1835.*—The singular is used, however, when a particular copy or particular edition is in question: *The Canterbury Tales, by Saunders, is full of very interesting comments / Your 'Lyrical Ballads' was found on my table.*

(2) Geographical names, etc. in the plural:

The names of towns, such as *Brussels, Lyons, Naples*, though somewhat reminiscent of plural substantives (*Brussels sprouts* sometimes

incorrectly becomes *Brussel sprouts*, cf. 2.3.6), take a singular verb: *Brussels is worth visiting*, but otherwise plural geographical names normally take a plural verb (see however the last example but two in 1.4.2): *Kew Gardens have become famous* / *The Netherlands are washed by the North Sea*; so also *The Pyrenees, the Alps*, etc.—Note that *the Ardennes* takes the singular because it has no plural indicator in pronunciation: *the Ardennes /a:'den/ has its woods and gorges*.—*The United States* is a special case. Here the plural of the verb is yielding place to the singular: *We recognise, as the United States have recognised, that selfgovernment should . . .* // *the British Empire, with its large territories, takes up about a third of the book*. *The United States is rightly made its closest competitor* / *He declared that the United States was ever ready to cooperate with other nations* / *ministers therefore felt regret that the United States was increasing the number of 10,000 ton cruisers* / *the United States wants a war stock of rubber*.

(3) The names of firms, institutions, etc. in the plural are on the same footing as collectives (cp. 1.4.8), i.e. varying in number according to the semantic content: *Imperial Chemicals have pooled their research results with those of Swedish Scientists* / *British Airways has arranged to complete its move to Heston airport* / *doubts about whether the United Nations was going too far*.

1.4.4 Turning from quoted words and proper names to appellatives, we can divide the substantives found only in the plural into three main types:

(1) Singular or plural of the verb corresponding to the reality expressed by the substantive: *innings, means, barracks*, and others. These cover countable concepts, and the form is the same for one or more units. Thus we find: *this innings is . . .* / *these innings are . . .* / *his innings was a valuable one* // *every means has been tried* / *all possible means have been adopted*. If there is no other indication of number in the sentence, the number of the verb vacillates: *the other headquarters is (are) also close to the Thames* / *The barracks was (were) quite near*.

(2) *pains, measles, mumps, rickets, billiards, draughts*, etc., which denote uncountable concepts, vary somewhat: *pains* generally takes the plural: *great pains have (has) been taken* / *much pains has been taken*. *Measles* takes the singular: *it was not the measles that*

was attacking her, but a very different malady; mumps, rickets generally take the singular, but can still take the plural;—billiards and draughts take the singular.

Whereabouts takes the singular: *a place whose whereabouts is unknown to me / her present whereabouts is unknown to me;—the Middle Ages* takes the singular or the plural: *the Middle Ages comprise one thousand years / the Middle Ages was the age of volunteers.*

News is found solely with the verb in the singular: *no news is good news / News spreads quickly in the East.*

(3) Substantives in *-ics* vary in the number taken. When they denote the facts and principles pertaining to a particular subject, they take the singular: *what is ethics? / metaphysics deals with abstractions;—*but when used to signify 'manifestation' or 'activity' they take the plural: *economics invariably give way to national necessity / such ethics are abominable / politics ruin the character;—*in constructions with the predicative complement in the singular these substantives usually take the singular of the verb: *physics is mainly the science of the transformation of energy.* The plural of the verb is however also found in this type: *politics are a nightmare* (cf. 1.4.2).

1.4.5 Terms of measurement in the plural commonly take the singular of the verb: *nearly thirty shillings was paid for a pound of tea in 1710 / from this comes five tons of pure sulphur / Over one hundred acres of fertile land to the south of Cardigan Bay has been saved for posterity / four years has seemed a long time; but the plural is not rare: ten pounds were more than he could afford / another hundred and fifty years were to pass* (this example is striking, as *another* would normally ensure the singular concept) / *nearly three weeks of electoral activity lie ahead.*

In the case of specifications of sums of money, the singular generally refers to the amount, the plural to the coins, etc. concerned: *here is five shillings / here are five shillings.*

In arithmetical statements the number is usually as follows: *three and three make (or are) six / three plus three are (equals) six / three times three is (are) nine / four from six leaves two / twenty divided by five equals four.*

Fractions + *of* + subst. take the number corresponding to the semantic content: *three fourths of the surface of the earth is water / three fourths of our class are against the plan / over three quarters of the town is destroyed.*

1.4.6 *a lot/lots/heaps* :

In formal style *lot* and *lots* present no agreement problem, since they are connected with singular and plural substantives respectively: *a lot of money was needed / there were lots of people*.—But in colloquial speech this does not apply, and here the phrases take the singular of the verb with uncountables, and the plural with countables: *there was heaps of fun / there was lots of fun / there were lots of people / there is heaps more to say on this question / there are heaps of books on the subject*.

1.4.7 Initial *there* usually has no influence on the number of the verb: *there is a man outside / there are many people*.—But the singular may naturally occur in cases such as the following, where the plurality of the subject has come about by an afterthought: *there was biscuit left in their saddle bags, and some sausages*.

In uneducated speech *there* often takes the singular with a subject in the plural: *there was nearly fifty thousand down at the Bridge this afternoon*.

1.4.8 Appellatives with the singular form presenting problems of agreement fall into three groups:

(1) Those which express solely a plural concept, and therefore take only the verb in the plural, such as *cattle, people* (= persons): *the cattle are grazing*.

(2) Words for countable phenomena having no plural indicator, *deer, sheep, (air)craft, counsel* (= barrister(s)); these take the singular or plural of the verb according to the reality expressed by the substantive: *the first counsel here is Mr . . . / how many Counsel for the Prosecution were there?*

(3) Collectives. Here the number of the verb varies according to which aspect of the content of these substantives is dominant in the given context—the unit or the individuals. This group comprises words like *family, crowd, police*, etc.: *The whole family was summoned / the ducal family were reduced to beggary, almost to starvation // the Senior Class requests the pleasure of your company / the Senior Class are unable to agree upon a president // The Cabinet is divided / the Cabinet are agreed // The military is apparently operating on the conclusion expressed by H. Baldwin in 1957 that the (Panama) Canal today is indefensible in total war / this does not mean that the military are in command or that they are*

in a position to seize command // the assembly was dissolved / the Senate are a flock of sheep / The National Portrait Gallery was closed and the staff was standing by ready to remove paintings / the nice old lady of whom the kitchen were so fond / the Royal Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals publishes a well-written monthly / Macmillan are re-issuing this early novel / The House of Commons has accepted a proposal to set up a pension fund for members / The Southern Rhodesian Parliament have adopted the traffic-lights system to control the length of speeches by members / At this early stage Birmingham already have one of their best players injured.

It is considered correct to keep to one of the two view-points—unit or individuals—in a given context, so that the singular of the verb involves the use of the relative pronoun *which*, personal pronoun *it*, possessive pronoun *its*, while the plural of the verb involves the use of *who*, *they*, and *their*: *British Labour, which is the friend of the German people, will tell you the truth / If the Government wishes a wide response to its appeal for National Service it should see that those at the head of every department should remain on the spot // He was glad it was Gloucestershire who were playing / The Opposition were handicapped by the extreme narrowness of the issue upon which they had elected to fight / the Government of Eire declare their readiness to cooperate / The 'Warrington Guardian' were so delighted with their work that they decided to take Mr Gladstone one of these early copies.*—Lack of agreement is here very common however: *if the Labour Party wants the main reason why the electorate finds their ministration either uninspiring or alarming, here it is . . . / the choir was singing. When their voices ceased . . .*

A collective + *of* + a substantive in the plural is generally no different from the simple collective; that is, the content and not the form of the substantive determines the number of the verb: *this class of words differs from the third class / the remarkable succession of monarchs who for a century past have ruled over Belgium / the greatest part of these years was spent . . . / the greatest part of the Moguls were illiterate / there is a family of painters.*—Attraction to the nearest member of the subject does occur, however, with the number conflicting with the content: *here was a pair of fellows who ignored his experiments / it will be observed that the United Kingdom percentage share is appreciably greater if the whole of the imports are considered.*

It may be noted that the type: demonstrative pronoun + *kind* or *sort* + *of* + plur. subst. (*this kind of apples, that sort of men*) takes only the singular of the verb: *this kind of apples is highly prized*, the plural concept (i.e. the individual components) being expressed by the alternative construction: *apples of this kind / men of that sort*.

1.4.9 A substantive in the singular to which are attached two adjectives denoting separate aspects of the substantive's content takes the plural of the verb: *Secondary and higher education have also been made available—less freely in England than in America / Hitler and Mussolini got a bloodless victory. Central and Eastern Europe come under the German might / good and bad butter are different to our taste / Of course, it may happen that linguistic and other evidence are found entangled.*

1.4.10 *All* used substantively is either common gender plural (e.g. *And so say all of us*), or neuter singular (*all is well*). We thus, in accordance with what was said in **1.4.2**, find the singular of the verb in cases such as: *All they wanted was better conditions of labour as wage-slaves / all that Italy holds effectively is two narrow strips of the country / All that we can see of either of them is two pairs of legs.*—It is old-fashioned to use the verb in the plural after neuter *all* when the predicative complement is plural: *All that we found of the deer were the ragged hide, some patches of hair, cracked bones and two long ears.*

What, *which*, and *who*, used interrogatively, are followed by the singular or the plural of the verb according to the speaker's intention: *What is your name? / what are your reasons? // which of the books is/are yours? // who was/were with him?*

As an independent relative *what* takes both the singular and the plural when the verb is followed by a plural substantive. In these cases it is considered correct to use the singular: *what fights is numbers / what is needed is acts*; that is, as in **1.4.2**, it is the subject and not the predicative complement that determines the number of the verb.—On the other hand, the plural of the verb is common usage in cases such as: *what the air contained were carbon monoxide gas and prussic acid gas / what does matter are the kind of expectations that delegates take back from the seaside to the coal-fields / Do not use what have been called the 'dry, meaningless formulae of commercialese' / Herr von Ribbentrop drew the attention of the Foreign Secretary to what were described as the incorrect and*

tendentious allegations made in parts of the British press.—In these cases number is difficult (cf. Fowler: Modern English Usage under *What*). The difference may be expressed by saying, like Fowler, that in the first type *what* = *that which*, and in the last type = *the components that . . . , the things that . . . , the phrases that . . . , the allegations that . . .*, i.e. = a plural substantive + *that*.—The two types might also be paralleled with expressions consisting of *it is/was* + plural substantive and *they are/were* + plural substantive: *it is the boys / they are nice boys* (cf. 6.3.7) and be defined as expressing respectively the identifying and the descriptive.

1.4.11 *Either* and *neither*, whether used substantively or adjectively, are associated with singular concepts: *neither statement is true / I don't want either of them, though either is sure to prove satisfactory.*—Where these pronouns are followed by *of* + a plural substantive or pronoun, the verb may be found in the plural, but this usage seems to be obsolescent, and the singular is normal: *has (have) either of them told you? / neither of us knows (know) for certain.*

1.4.12 In its independent substantival function (of persons), *none* takes the plural of the verb: *none are so deaf as those that will not bear*; the singular is rare: *There was none she could tell her sorrow to*; in standard speech *none* in this usage has otherwise been replaced by *nobody*, *no one* (with the verb in the singular, of course).—When *none* refers to (or is followed by *of* +) a substantive or pronoun the number of the verb is as follows: when *none* refers to uncountable substantives the verb is singular: *we hoped the money would arrive soon, but none was forthcoming*; when *none* refers to a subst. or pron. with a countable content, the number of the verb varies according to the reality referred to: *none of them are of any use to me* (: 'they are not of any use to me') / *none of them is the man I want* (: 'I want one man, but . . .').—Where the number of the reality is obscure, the tendency seems to be to use the singular: *none of their pistols was loaded / Purchase tax has become a Frankenstein monster with which none of our leaders seems capable of dealing / none of his things was touched / none of these men accepts the ideal postulates wholeheartedly.*

1.4.13 *One of* + substantive or pronoun in the plural + relative pronoun varies in the number of the verb it takes; the plural is

considered correct: *she is one of the few persons I know who have learnt from experience / he was one of those men who never venture out of sight of a bank without a banknote in their pockets*; but attraction to *one* is very frequent: *They have gone through one of those complete changes of occupation which does everybody good / and is he not one of the few who does not think that Shakespeare must have been someone very like himself?*

1.4.14 *Each other* cannot act as subject in correct English, the thought being expressed in other ways, e.g. *each knows what the other wants*. The construction is however found in colloquial speech, and the verb is then commonly in the singular: *We know what each other wants / There is something to be said for having the cards on the table, and for the principal parties knowing exactly where each other stands*.

1.4.15 Since the -s suffix is distinctive as to person, disjunctive expressions representing different persons could give rise to a problem of agreement in the present-tense forms of the verb (the same applies to the present-tense forms *am*, *is*, *are*, and the preterite forms *was*, *were*). Examples of this rarely occur however, being replaced by expressions with uniform verbal forms, or by some other form of expression: *either he or I must be wrong / either he is in the wrong or I am*.—When this type of expression does occur, the form of the verb is usually determined by the nearest subject: *either he or I am in the wrong / we or John is in the wrong / either you or your brother has done it*.

The Suffix *-ed*

(The following applies also to the irregular preterite and past participle forms mentioned in 1.2.3(3) and 1.2.6.)—For the preterite as against other tenses see 1.7.2 ff.

1.5 The identity of the preterite and past participle to be found in most verbs does not lead to ambiguity in ordinary speech because the functions of these verbal forms are so different. Only in newspaper headlines, and other cases where sentences without finite verbs are frequently to be found, can ambiguity occur: WINDSOR FLOWER SHOW CLOSED YESTERDAY could be taken to have either value. Similarly, in the following example 'a yellow map' can be regarded either as co-ordinate with 'chairs' or as the subject of the following verb: *Mr S. ushered him into a small parlour scantily furnished with a few chairs, a yellow map hung against the wall . . .*

1.5.1 The past participle may be either adjectival or verbal in character; with the adjectival value it may be attributive: *lost property*, predicative: *my patience is exhausted*, or substantival in connection with the definite article: *the injured / the deceased*; with verbal value it is found in the perfect and pluperfect: *I have/had slept* and in the passive: *battles were lost and won*.

There is rarely any difference in form between the two main usages of the past participle. Where there are two forms of the past participle in the irregular verbs the distinction between them generally lies elsewhere, e.g. *melted/molten // drunk/drunken // swelled/swollen* (see 1.2.6).—Only a few words such as *aged, beloved, blessed, cursed, learned* may be said to differ in form to some extent according to the two functions, in that the vowel of the suffix has often been kept in the adjectival function and not in the verbal; for *blessed* and *learned* see under these verbs in 1.2.6.—Examples of the other verbs mentioned are: *you have aged /eidʒd/ // an aged /eidʒɪd/ man // he was beloved /bi'lʌvd/ by his pupils / my beloved /bi'lʌvid/ // you deserve to be cursed /kə:st/ / this cursed /kə:sɪd/ earth*.

1.5.2 The adjectival and the verbal past participle are commonly intensified with respectively *very* and *much*: *I am very pleased / the*

flowers were much touched by the frost; but the distinction is not clear-cut; *afraid*, which has acquired full adjectival value, is intensified with *much*; similarly: *I am much beholden to you for your help*.

1.5.3 The adjectival past participle form, which is usually passive in content: *a forged signature* / *I am accustomed to it* / *the accused was saved from the gallows*, often loses its passive character: *he is outspoken in his remarks* / *a well-read man* / *I am quite decided*.

The past participle of intransitively used verbs has as a matter of course a non-passive (often active) content: *the fallen* / *the risen Christ* / *he is far gone*.

On the pre-positive and post-positive past part.: *the mentioned problem* / *the problem mentioned*, see 3.7.5(3).

1.5.4 The adjectival past participles of verbs with perfective content denote the condition resulting from the completed action: *evacuated towns* / *I am surprised* / *dressed in white*; the past participles of verbs with durative content denote condition without any suggestion of the start of this condition: *the hated Voltaire* / *he is well known* / *an honoured colleague*.

1.5.5 No clear distinction can be drawn between the past participle form used adjectivally and adjectives formed from substantives with the suffix -ed. The suffixes of these adjectives are pronounced in the same way as those of the past participle forms: *diseased* /di zi:zd/ / *jaundiced* /dʒɔ:ndist/ / *good-hearted* /gudhɑ:tid/. In *a solemn-visaged butler* / *he lay pensive and wide-eyed in the dark* / *a three-bedroomed house* the words in question are incontestably adjectives in content, but in cases such as *a clouded sky* / *barred cells* / *a floodlighted square* the distinction is less clear.—A consequence of this syncretism is that with the adjective corresponding to *spring* (the metal device) the form to be expected, with -ed = 'supplied with springs', has been replaced by the past participle form *sprung*: *two types of chairs, the hollow-backed kind with sprung velvet seat and the padded back with spiral spring seat* / *this armchair is double sprung* / *my sofa is well enough sprung*.—Similarly: *W.E. provided the farce to the theatre in those gas-lit days*.

1.5.6 A past participle occurring before the finite verb of the sentence is normally connected with the subject of the sentence: *viewed from a sufficient distance the sound-laws appear to fulfil them-*

selves over the whole language; but, originating in the absolute construction (e.g. *this done, we went home*), which belongs to literary language, preposed past participle forms are to be found unattached to the subject of the sentence: *born in 1850, a part of his education was received at Eton* instead of *born in 1850, he received . . .* (See Partridge: Usage & Abusage p. 81). Cases of such unattached participles are however not infrequent, even in good literature: *Settled down at last at Amorbach, the time hung heavily on the Duke's hands* (Strachey: Queen Victoria).

1.5.7 In the perfect and pluperfect the past participle is almost exclusively combined with forms of *have*. In the case of verbs used intransitively or as copulas however the past participle is also combined with forms of *be* when not the action, but the resulting condition, is to be expressed. This is often the case with: *gone: the money is gone*; less often with other verbs: *now all he had anticipated was come to pass / it had been obvious for some time that the headmaster was become too deaf to continue his work / Why could he see through bodies . . . ? Scientifically speaking, the flesh was melted off the world* (Virginia Woolf: Mrs Dalloway).—Further examples will be found in 1.1.2.

In other cases a corresponding difference between action and the resulting condition is expressed by means of respectively verbal and adjectival phrases: *her eyes had filled with tears / her eyes were full of tears // his brow had darkened / his brow was dark // the child has died through neglect / how can you prove that your father is dead?*—In content the two forms of expression are so alike that the same reality could often be described by either form: *Your friend is dead / has died, I see*, according to the point of view adopted. Often the resultative formula is used, as the more powerful expression, of something which objectively viewed is really action (change): *By the time they reached the nursery little Phil was dead / just after the poor little one was dead, frantic telegrams had come from M. / As I stood on the platform, a voice behind me said 'Bill, I say, W.G. is dead.'*

1.5.8 With transitive verbs in the perfect and pluperfect the object is placed after the past participle: *he has painted the house*. If the object is placed before the past participle, this either becomes the complement of the object: *he'll never have the book completed / I want to have this done before we start / Cole was deeply impressed*

by the Paris Exposition. With his wide technical knowledge, he realized at once that in many departments of manufacture the Frenchmen *had us beaten*,—or the past participle still has verbal content, and *have* + p.p. has the connotation 'cause a person to do something': *he has the house painted every year* or the connotation 'be affected in some way': *he had some money stolen*.

If the object is a relative pronoun, there will be syncretism of the two constructions, since the relative pronoun must introduce the clause; such clauses could therefore have either value: *Lord and Lady Attlee intend to move into a smaller house which they had built about two years ago*.

The Passive

9

1.5.9.1 In perfective verbs the passive forms are ambiguous (as mentioned in 1.1.4), in that they may denote either condition or action (change): *the wall is whitewashed* / *the wall is whitewashed every year*. In colloquial speech *get* is widely used as a passive auxiliary verb to ensure the connotation of change in such verbs: *how many people got killed?* / *her dress got torn to bits* / *the desires of man are wonderfully various . . . and so the work of the world gets done*. In formal English *get* + p.p. has a connotation of something self-inflicted: *you'll get hanged some day* / *the fox got caught in the end* / *you'll get hurt*.

Become is likewise combined with the past participle to form the passive, the combinations adding to the passive *become*'s usual content, i.e. change from one condition to a new condition: *we became acquainted* / *a collection of quite everyday persons . . . became convinced that the way to stop a disease was to give you another* / *dialectic expressions sometimes become established in the literary language* / *when first they became known to us*.

1.5.9.2 If both the agent (i.e. 'the logical subject') and the patient (i.e. 'the logical object') are expressed, the passive sentence covers the same reality as the corresponding active sentence: *the mouse was caught by the cat* / *the cat caught the mouse*. The form chosen in such cases is often determined by the point of view (in the example given it is thus determined by whether it is the mouse's experiences that are to be described, or the cat's); and often by stylistic factors: *The greater part of modern English literature has been written by men who*

were classically educated, and for readers who were presumed to have more or less knowledge of Latin.

The commonest use of the passive however is the cases where the agent is unspecified, because this member is clear from the context, or because for some reason specification is not desired: *Dr Adenauer could only refuse the Russian invitation at the grave risk of breaking his shaky coalition . . . But in accepting he may well be offered concessions which make it impossible to maintain his Western orientation / Dr Jameson was supplied with a letter pretending that the women and children of Johannesburg were in danger and summoning him to their defence. Jameson crossed the frontier on December 29th, and was quickly compelled to surrender / Your application has been considered and it is not thought that you have made out a case.*—There is often a similar lack of specification as to agent in the use of such subjects as *people, a man, one, they*; etc.; compare *it is said that . . . , people say that . . . , and they say that . . .* For further reference, see 11.7.1.

1.5.9.3 When the agent is not specified the conception of this logical subject is sometimes so vague that the content of the passive form approaches that of a corresponding intransitive form of the verb: *the door was opened* may have roughly the same content as *the door opened / his fortune was increased* as *his fortune increased*; here the connotation of the passive formulation, that the 'behaviour' of the subject has been brought about by something or other (in these sentences *opened* by N.N. / *increased* by this enterprise respectively), is in many cases almost obliterated. Compare also such sentences as: *only articles of the first quality were sold* and *goods of that quality will never sell / it was felt to be a mistake and it felt cold // School buses will presumably have to be run* to collect the children / *the Festival Hall runs at a profit // There are three lines rhyming C B C, whereupon the structure by quatrains picks up again / The arc lamps of Oxford Street reflected in the polished surface of the road / At the sound of the laughter something roused in the blood of the girl.* Often the intransitive formulation connotes something characteristic of the subject, not action: *the door won't lock / the orange peels easily / she didn't photograph well. Her face looked flat . . . / the verse scans well / his writings translate excitingly.*

It is therefore not surprising that what is expressed by the passive form in one period can in another be expressed by an intransitive verbal form. Thus the verb *drown* is changing in this respect; OED

describes the intransitive use of *drown* as 'unusual' in the main article on *drown* (written in the 1890s), but in the supplementary volume (1933) this designation has been dropped owing to the change; and examples of the intransitive use can now hardly be described as infrequent: *we are going to drown in erudition / the police yesterday recovered the body of Mrs S. from the river near Wapping. Her baby has not yet been found, and the police fear that she has also drowned.*—A similar change of usage is seen in the case of *burn down* with perfective association; but the intransitive use of this verbal phrase seems to be rare: *the Crystal Palace provided for all sorts of spacious displays and exhibitions before it burned down in 1936* (Manch. Guardian Weekly Aug. 16, 1962).

1.5.9.4 The usual construction of a passive sentence is: the patient followed by the passive verb: *much coal was used / wine is not made from these grapes*. The construction: unstressed *there* + the reversed order is not very frequent: *at about this stage of a history of England there is generally told the anecdote of a pun of Gregory the Great / By the seventeenth of January there had been sacked and burned the churches of Saint Sophia and Saint Irene, and the Royal Porch, which was a famous library . . . and the High Street as far as the Square of Constantine // There were 110 persons killed and 112 wounded in Palestine during January, according to figures compiled from the Government's daily official communiqués*.

1.5.9.5 Practically all verbs which can be used transitively can be constructed in the passive voice, even verbs whose transitive use must be said to belong to the peripheral area of the verb: *the horse was walked up the hill. Have* with durative association is however only to be found in the active form: *he has a house / we have about a hundred copies in stock*. If the object of a statement like this is to become the subject, some other construction than the passive must be resorted to, e.g.: *a hundred copies are in stock*. (With perfective association however the passive of this verb is common: *there was nothing to be had*.)—For lack of the passive in other cases see **1.1.5**.

Combinations of verb + preposition, having the same function as transitively used verbs, are common in the passive construction: *the doctor was sent for / this is not to be thought of / I was often laughed at*.—By the transitive function of the combination is meant that the semantic content of verb + preposition affects the complement of the preposition; thus, while we have passive expres-

sions such as: *it was obvious that the bed had been slept in*, an expression such as *he has travelled in the East* cannot be converted into the passive construction.

Similarly, combinations of verb + object + preposition, functioning as a transitively used verb, commonly occur in the passive construction with the complement of the preposition as subject: *he was taken no notice of / the house was set fire to / the situation was paid attention to*. But if the combination has not merged into a whole, passive expressions have the object of the verb as the patient; compare the last example given with: *I wonder why such attentions are paid to this lady*.

1.5.9.6 Corresponding to an active sentence with both direct and indirect object: *I gave the boy the book*, passive expressions can be found with both the indirect and the direct object appearing as subject: *the boy was given the book / the book was given to the boy*. The passive with the indirect object as subject is particularly common when the direct object is in the indefinite form and thus not linked with the preceding statement: *Now Dr Adenauer is offered diplomatic recognition and tempting vistas of trade with the East / He had been brought a small red tomato and a hard, rocky wedge of bacon / they were given ample warning*; but cases where the direct object is in the definite form also frequently display the same construction, particularly if the direct object is long: *he looked as if he had been handed the key of Paradise*.

When the direct object acts as the subject of the passive sentence, the indirect object is more often found with *to* than without it: *my first bribe was offered to me at the age of nineteen / justice must not be denied to anyone, however poor he may be // Chaplin was showing, but in a microscopic size; better things were given us at the great warehouse by the station by our own divisional party, 'The Tivolies' / it must be supposed from the advance publicity which was given it (i.e. a speech) that the Prime Minister himself regarded it as a major pronouncement*.

Note also that the passive suggesting condition or state is not found with the indirect object as subject: *the serenity of spiritual satisfaction was denied him*; compare: *if so, you'll be denied Extreme Unction*.

1.5.9.7 Combinations of infinitive or gerund + object, which are the complement of certain verbs—*begin, attempt, propose*, etc.—can be found in the corresponding passive expression with both the verbal phrase and the infinitive or gerund in the passive form: *I*

finished sowing the field yesterday / they had begun to read the next chapter can be found in the passive as: *the field was finished being sown yesterday / the next chapter had been begun to be read*. Such constructions are not considered acceptable (see Fowler: *Modern English Usage* under *Double Passives*, or E. G. Gowers: *The Complete Plain Words* p. 159); other forms of expression are to be preferred, e.g. *the sowing of the field was finished / the reading of the next chapter had been begun*.

For the passive infinitive versus active infinitive see 1.3.5.

The Suffix -ing

1.6 A word with this suffix can act as (1) a substantive: *I gave him my blessing / a street of silent-looking dwellings*; (2) a gerund: *hanging criminals is no cure / I am proud of being your wife / talking so rudely is provoking*; (3) the present participle: *a girl smiling her sweetest / coming up to me he said, 'Good morning' / what are you looking at?*; (4) an adjective: *he is always willing / a strapping fellow / he is the cunninger of the two*; (5) a preposition: *I will communicate with you concerning your friend / I have an advantageous offer to make him regarding the cattle / your facts are very valuable, specially as touching (this is archaic) your own stay in Crete.*

In the examples given above the value of the -ing form is unequivocal, but many usages can be interpreted in more than one way: *There is nothing like learning* (substantive = 'knowledge' or gerund = 'the process of acquiring knowledge') / *his mind is wandering* (adjective = 'wild, delirious', or present participle = 'straying') / *a communication concerning your friend* (present participle attached to *communication* = 'which has to do with', or preposition = 'about').—Compare also such cases as: *they were busy packing / she spent the afternoon writing letters*, where the written form might lead one to interpret the form as a present participle, but where the content and intonation indicate attachment to the predicate, not the subject, and the gerund is the more correct interpretation; and an example like: *he could see clearly the river, the meadow, and he himself running across the summer grass*, where with the addition of 'he', *running* cannot be a present participle acting as objective complement, but must be taken as a gerund forming part of a nexus with 'he himself' as its subject.

The following treats the two verbal usages of the -ing form: the present participle and the gerund. Incidentally, it is noteworthy that many words occur in present participle and gerund forms which rarely or never appear in other forms of the verb (the type *do* + gerund in particular exhibits many examples of this): *Many a human being spends most of his waking life day-dreaming / they went bird's-nesting / he is not a fox-hunting man / we have not done much shopping today / he had done some bairdressing before he had cards printed offering private appointments.*

1.6.1 The adjectival character of the present participle can be seen from the fact that it is to be found (1) attributively: *he has two thriving bespoke tailor's shops / hard wood, properly treated, will not become infected with boring insects / he has a captivating manner*; (2) predicatively: *he was visibly sinking / her mind is wandering / except London, most English towns in the fifteenth century were stationary or declining in wealth and population*; (3) used substantivally: *the dying were being heaped on top of the dead* (this type is not frequent, agent nouns in *-er* often being used instead: *with a wave of his hand he indicated the eaters, the waiters and . . . / I listened to the dismal snorings of my companions . . . I envied the snorers*); (4) used adverbially, both with and without the adverbial suffix: *he was a strikingly handsome man / boiling hot / piercing cold*.

The verbal character of the present participle is to be seen when this form is combined with the same sentence-members as the corresponding finite verbal expressions: (1) adverb: *the dialects are perpetually changing*; (2) object: *he had cards printed offering private appointments. He tramped ten miles a day through London's streets pushing them through letter boxes*; (3) predicative complement: *under the Commonwealth the majority of the 'upper class', being Cavaliers, had suffered an eclipse*; (4) subject: *it being cold, he put on his coat*.

1.6.2.1 Present participle forms are far more widely used in English than in other Germanic languages. As regards their relationship to other sentence-members the following should be noted:

A present participle form placed after a substantive and linked with it by stress and intonation has this as its conceptual subject: *the woodpeckers peck holes in woodwork to feed on the beetles infesting already diseased or rotten wood / the Pakistan amendments had removed the clause providing for such compensation / the prize goes to J.T., who entered a fine plaice weighing 4 lb. 1½ oz. // if the jury had heard Dr S. and Mr B. giving the same evidence they might have hesitated very long before saying that they were satisfied that death was due to the stab wound / neighbours saw smoke coming from the house.*—In the case of verbs of sensation, as in the last two examples, the construction approximates in content to corresponding expressions with the infinitive (see 1.3.3.8).

1.6.2.2 The present participle more independent in stress and intonation has as its implied subject the subject of the sentence's

finite verbal form (if the first three examples in the preceding section are read as though there were a comma before the present participles the change in the grouping will be clear).

These independent present participle forms may be placed earlier or later in the sentence than the subject of the finite verb: *referring to the treatment with Terramycin, Dr S. said . . . / my daughter, coming home from her holidays, hired a taxi from the station / Mrs A. returned to her first husband a few weeks ago, taking the boys with her.*

They may indicate condition, cause, or different temporal relations: *happening in war time, this would amount to disaster / you ought to have been told, being an old friend of the family / walking down the street, I met a friend / having finished my work, I went for a walk / strolling about the park, I pondered on the problem.*—The value may often be defined by a preceding conjunction: *while walking there I met my friend / when looking up I saw him enter*; or a preposition + gerund may be used: *on ringing the bell he stepped back / in explaining his action he muddled up things.*

1.6.2.3 The time concept attached to the more independent present participle forms may depend upon the position: when they precede the finite verb of the sentence, the present participles express an action more or less simultaneous with that expressed by the finite verb; when placed after the finite verb they are not limited in time in this way. Compare: *arriving in London at ten, I'll go by train . . .* and *I'll go by train, arriving in London at ten.*

1.6.2.4 The examples of the independent present participle forms hitherto given have had the same subject as the sentence's finite verb: *several readers have written to this paper complaining of shrinkage in dresses.* In a number of stock cases however the present participle is used without restrictions as to subject: *taking everything into consideration, this is not bad / judging by the time he took over it, it must have been a difficult job / seeing that there is plenty of time, there is no need to hurry like that.*—From this point it is a short step to the use of the present participle as a conjunction or preposition: *considering, excepting, providing, supposing, concerning, regarding, including.*

1.6.2.5 Apart from such stock expressions, the unattached (as to subject) present participle is permissible in good English only where its subject is indefinite ('one'): *coming further south Asia Minor is seen in the distance* (the same sentence in the preterite, which would not have a generic implication, is not permissible).

If the subject of the present participle differs from that of the finite verb, or if it is to be stressed, it is stated: *We started, he remaining behind / He being absent, nothing could be done // there he stood by Miss Parry's chair as though he had been cut in wood, he talking about wild flowers.*

(For the resemblance of these 'absolute' present participle constructions to gerund constructions, see **1.6.5(2).**)

1.6.3 The forms of the gerund have both substantival and verbal features; both aspects of the content are often apparent in the same context.

The gerund's substantival features are as follows: (1) it may have a plural *-s*: *Judge Jeffreys watches the hangings of those he has condemned / such goings-on*; (2) it may have a genitive *-s*: *we are walking for walking's sake*; (3) it may be provided with articles: *there was a gentle tapping on the door / The cream of the batting had already been skimmed on Saturday*; (4) it may be combined with words in the attributive-adjectival function: *the best grouping of canvases / there was much coming and going between the embassies / he infuses the story with a warm spontaneous power that prevents its being obvious / the house was locked up and there was no answer to one's ringing / no complaint was made about the judge's summing up*; (5) it may form part of compounds in the same way as a substantive: *a walking-stick / blotting-paper*; (6) it may have the object of the implied verbal concept attached to it by *of*: *Mrs O.'s leaving of her life was as unobtrusive as her living of it / the killing of the pig lasted an unconscionable time*; (7) it may be co-ordinate with substantives: *transportation or hanging, that's what he deserves / travelling and hotel accommodation is always first class*; (8) it may be subject, object, predicative complement, and the complement of a preposition: *speaking seemed painful to him / you must give up travelling / this is playing with fire / he used to earn coppers by lighting fires for Orthodox neighbours on the Sabbath.*

1.6.4 The verbal character of the gerund can be seen from the fact that this form may (1) be combined with adverbial members: *by*

scraping and eating skimpily, he spent four months as a student in New York / our chance of ever knowing the truth is very slight; (2) have an object or predicative complement: after receiving the last sacraments, he died peacefully at 12.52 a.m. / she was proud of being his daughter; (3) have a subject: she got a sense of it being her duty to do something / I hate the idea of my cousin interfering; (4) be inflected in the perfect and the passive: there is a possibility of his having arrived by now / this saved him from being hurt.

1.6.4.1 The passive form of the gerund mentioned above is not used consistently; in certain cases the active form may also be found with a passive content: *the royal palace of Nonsuch . . . commenced building more than 420 years ago / he deserves punishing / he is worthy of hanging / the candle is in need of snuffing.*—With *need*, *require*, *want*, and the adjective *worth*, the complement is always in the active voice, even though the content may be passive: *it will need doing / he requires looking after / the garden wants weeding / this is worth doing.*

1.6.4.2 Though the substantival and verbal aspects of the gerund may often both be present in one context: *In seeking a successor to Cardinal Griffin the Vatican may prefer to choose an Englishman* (the gerund form is here, at one and the same time, the complement of a preposition and followed by its object), there are limits to liberty on this point: the object of a gerund with a definite article is attached by *of*: *the killing of birds is his favourite pastime*; when the gerund has no determinative the object is immediately attached (see however **8.7.9**, second paragraph): *killing birds is his favourite pastime.*—The two other possibilities did formerly exist: *nothing in his life became him like the leaving it / they were employed in digging of trenches.*

1.6.5 If nothing else is stated, the subject of a gerund form is the subject of the finite verb of the sentence: *I am tired of talking* thus means 'my own talking', not that of others. If the subject differs from that of the finite verb, it is stated; and here there are two possibilities: the conceptual subject of the gerund may be expressed either by a substantive in the genitive (or a possessive pronoun), or by an uninflected substantive (or a personal pronoun in the accusative): *I*

remember the judge's/his saying that or I remember the judge/him saying that.

Various factors determine the usage on this point :

(1) whether the subject of the gerund can be given a genitive form: *I am not surprised at young or old falling in love with her / I could not imagine that being possible / on the permission to go being repeated she left the room / I object to the word 'negligence' being used / he hated the idea of the house falling into ruins / I don't remember any of them saying it.*—Compare: *he has reversed the move to prevent America's giving aid to Yugoslavia / he infuses the story with a warm spontaneous power that prevents its being obvious / Persia has been claiming Babrein for years without anybody's being much the worse.*—But in less formal English the uninflected form of the substantive or the personal pronoun is usual in such cases also: *I don't approve of my daughter marrying like that / I could not imagine my sons refusing such an offer / the idea of children marrying / she got a profound sense of it being her duty.*

(2) the syntactical function of the gerund phrase: if the phrase is the subject or predicative complement, expressions using the genitive or a possessive pronoun are usual: *his/your husband's saying so alters nothing // It was your/Mr Smith's coming so late that disturbed me.*—If the gerund phrase is the complement of a transitive verb or a preposition, many combinations will be more or less ambiguous, since the -ing form can be regarded either as the gerund or as the present participle: *no doubt there were many cases of lovers marrying, all through the Middle Ages.* The genitive here serves to prevent the -ing form's being regarded as a present participle in cases where such a view would be possible: *there was no complaint about the judge's summing up / one cannot imagine an intelligent man's wanting to know such things at all / fancy his behaving so bad.*

(3) emphasis: if the subject of the gerund carries the main stress of the gerund phrase, the genitive or possessive pronoun is not used: *I like the idea of you rescuing your brother / I have no objection to a cow being killed, but a horse is quite a different animal.*—The same applies to ellipsis: *there is danger of you being dismissed as well as me.*

1.6.6 Since the gerund and the infinitive both act as substantial forms of the verb, there are certain resemblances between them.

In a very large number of cases either form can be used as subject, object, and predicative complement: *erring/to err is human // seeing is believing / to build upon any other foundation is to build upon sand // he continued working/to work.*

The difference in content between the two forms of expression can be very slight; but a tendency may be noted in such cases to use the gerund of what is general, and the infinitive of what concerns a particular occasion: *lying is a vice / to lie about it will only make matters worse // I hate getting up early / I should hate to get up early tomorrow // She liked pruning rose-trees, or beginning to cut a yew hedge into shape / I should like to go now.*

In other cases the distinction is more clear-cut.

Some verbs have both kinds of complement, but with a considerable difference in content: *he remembered posting the letter* (i.e. 'that he had posted the letter') / *he remembered to post the letter* (i.e. 'did not fail to post the letter') // *he tried writing to her, but she did not reply* (i.e. 'to see whether it would work') / *he tried to write to her, but he could not* (i.e. 'made an attempt at it') // *having collected his material, he began writing* (expresses intentional action) / *after a week he began to enjoy his stay* (non-intentional action);—*start* used as a synonym for *begin* also uses the gerund of intentional action: *after some hesitation he started writing his report*, but in expressing non-intentional action there is vacillation between the two constructions: *he was surprised that the door-bell should start ringing so soon / it has already started to rain.*

(After *stop* there is a great difference in content between the constructions with a following gerund or infinitive: *he stopped smoking* ('gave up . . .') / *he stopped to smoke* ('stopped in order to . . .'),—but here of course only the gerund is the complement of *stopped*.)

Many verbs can be combined only with the infinitive: *I hope to see him soon / I wished to go to France*; others can be combined only with the gerund: *avoid, have done, enjoy, escape, finish, cannot help, keep, mind, postpone, risk, stand, etc.*: *Mr Menzies said that all delegates should avoid making remarks which would only render the task of the conference more difficult / have you done reading the paper / I am sure he enjoys living in the country / fancy loving green!*

1.6.7 A preposition cannot have the infinitive, but only the gerund, as its complement: *you should not joke about falling in love /*

without looking at him I realised that he was in earnest / are you afraid of dying?

As regards *to*, a difficulty may arise when a figurative expression with a connotation of direction becomes, or is beginning to become, a dead metaphor: *hunger drove him to stealing* can become *hunger drove him to steal*, the content of the verb being weakened to a concept such as 'compel'. The approximation of the two forms of expression can be clearly seen in the following examples: *he has a strong aversion to shedding blood / his opposition to going there made me wonder / this metal offers great resistance to being worn down / we are going our own way to developing atomic power for peace / he is unequal to treating the question / economic policy has been directed to keeping the cost of living down // he felt a strong impulse to go at once / he has a tendency to exaggerate / he is incompetent to write about this / architecture was never intended to give such pleasure / he refused to go.*

In these examples there is hardly likely to be any vacillation in ordinary speech between the two constructions, but in other cases both possibilities may be found (the commoner is given first): *I have no objection to mentioning names / I have no objection to join with you // Why did you object to paying your share? / he objected to pay the driver // English people were then accustomed to speak French / I am not accustomed to writing with that kind of pen // always he looked forward eagerly to taking up his full duties / I am looking forward to see you soon // he is an only child and used to amusing himself / he had been used to move in those circles years ago.*

In spite of the apparent arbitrariness to be seen in the above examples, it must not be forgotten that the replacement of the gerund by the infinitive is the formal expression of a weakening of the figurative concept in the governing expression; the two expressions must therefore not be held to denote exactly the same content.—Examples showing a distinct difference are rare however; *agree* may serve: *we agreed to go there* ('we were of the same opinion') as against *we agreed to going there* ('we accepted the suggestion'), where the prepositional, directional aspect of *to* in the second example can I think still be recognized.

The Expanded Tenses

1.6.8 Historically these verbal forms have arisen from the merging of two constructions: forms of *be* + present participle: *he is smiling*, and forms of *be* + *on* + gerund: *he is on hunting* (weakened first to the now archaic or dialectal *he is a-hunting*). The present participle element is probably the clearest: *a sinking ship* and *the ship is sinking* are close to each other in content. But the gerund can also be unmistakably recognized in certain uses of these forms: the gerund (like the infinitive) was originally neutral as regards the concept active/passive. As mentioned in 1.6.4.1, the active form of the gerund may still have a passive content; the same applies to certain cases of expanded verbal forms: *Barry's masterpiece had been ten years building* (in addition to: *many new houses are being built*). The other cases of expanded verbal forms in the active with passive content most frequently found are: *the book is (re)printing* (as well as: *being (re)printed*) / *the book is binding* (as well as: *being bound*) / *he paid all that was owing* / *is anything doing?* / *he was making the rounds of his cathedral when he noticed that an image of St Anthony was missing*.

1.6.9 The commonest content of expanded verbal forms in the present, preterite, and future is that the action expressed by the verb is of limited duration and takes place / took place / will take place around a point of time explicit or implicit in the context. This concept may be suitably expressed by the diagram []

Examples of this are: (under a picture) *the boy in the centre is carrying a dish of freshly caught fish, which he is offering for sale* / *he was turning with an inward chuckle towards the fire, when the door opened* / *in a few minutes I shall be seeing him, talking to him, telling him that I like him* / *she heard voices raised indoors. They would be saying to one another . . .*

In the perfect and pluperfect the content of the expanded forms is that an action of limited duration extends up to an explicit or implicit point of time. This may be expressed by the diagram []

Examples are: *we ex-Service men have been having a pretty tough time during the last 10 years* / *'Your hair wants cutting', said the Hatter. He had been looking at Alice for some time.*

Instead of being related to a point of time, as in the examples already given, the action expressed by the expanded tenses may be

related to a concept of a period of time, indicating the extent of the action; this may be expressed by the diagram

Examples are: *all that time the ringer was working at the bell / he was looking up into the sky all the time he was speaking / while the army was finishing its manœuvres on Salisbury Plain, the Home Fleet was making mock war in the Firth of Forth.*

On the basis of the examples hitherto given we may take the central concept of the expanded tenses to be an action of limited duration. As against this, simple tenses express: 1) information about a fact, 2) unlimited, or 3) momentary action: *your dog snores heavily / the sun rose at six / darkness has fallen // these pears ripen early / we worked like mad // now I break this egg and proceed to beat it / the string snapped / the ladder has fallen.*

1.6.9.1 The following special variants of the above-mentioned central concept should be noted:

(1) The expanded tenses may have a connotation of characterization or description instead of action. The sentence *this is the room where Miss Stones is now sleeping* may have the action value already described, namely, that Miss S. is at this moment sleeping; but the same sentence may mean '... which is now Miss S.'s bedroom'. The concept 'limited duration' still remains, however.

Examples are: *her mind is wandering / the foxgloves were coming into flower / The King was visibly sinking.* This use of the expanded forms, where the descriptive (adjectival) aspect is dominant, must of course not be confused with *be* + adjectival present participles, which may be intensified by *very*, compared, etc.: *the outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease is disturbing, but not alarming / this is very exciting / his book is more entertaining than I had expected.*

(2) In the case of verbs with a clear perfective association, the content often has two aspects: the action in progress, and the future completion of this: *your horse is catching up with the others.* In certain cases the latter element may be so dominant that the expanded form of these perfective verbs may be said to express the future: *I am leaving tomorrow*; but it is still a future of a particular kind: preparation for or consideration of the action in question is included, and for this reason these verbal forms generally refer to the near future: *many firms are sending goods to be shown at the exhibition / his parents were arriving today / who is coming*

tonight / *we are renting a farm some miles from here.*—A special group is here formed by verbs denoting arrangements, meals, etc., where the particular situation very often determines the significance of the expression: *I'm lunching with a man at the other end of London* (e.g. spoken on the telephone during the lunch in question, or a statement made when leaving home in the morning) / *I'm sitting for John* (i.e. as model for a portrait) / *Are we dining out?*

(3) The concept repetition is normally connected with simple tenses; with adverbs such as *always*, *continually*, *incessantly*, *perpetually*, we therefore usually find sentences of the type: *he always smokes a pipe.*—But these adverbs may also be combined with the expanded form, the combinations expressing 'disapproving emphasis': *he is always smoking a pipe* / *she was always losing her pocket handkerchiefs* / *he is always being engaged and breaking it off at the last minute.*

1.6.9.2 The type of action expressed by the verb may determine the use or non-use of the expanded form:

Perfective verbs which may also have an association of action in progress, differ considerably in content in the simple and the expanded form: the simple form expresses the action as completed, with little or no conception of it as progressing: *he came and asked me something*, while the expanded form expresses an action still in progress: *he was coming across the field to my bungalow.* Other examples are: *he passed the house* / *he was passing the house* // *he tore the letter to pieces* / *he was tearing the letter to pieces when . . .* // *I took her home* / *I was taking her home when . . .*

Perfective verbs with no progress association are not found in the expanded form: *the blow missed him* / *the band snapped.*—But if such verbs are used of iterative action, the series of momentary actions can of course be viewed as continuous, and we get the expanded form: *bombs were popping all around us* / *my cold is dripping all over the paper.*

1.6.9.3 Verbs with durative action association seem to be more haphazard in their simple and expanded forms; in many cases it is merely a question of the point of view, of whether the durative verbal concept is regarded as action in progress of limited duration, or as the statement of a fact: *How charming the yellow curtain looked!* / *His heart was beating very fast.* / *He opened the suit-case.* / *His heart*

beat wildly / one of them was holding a feather brush; the other carried four pieces of thick rope / the sail bellied out, and strained, and grumbled at the mast, and the boat flew.—I steered.—We had the river to ourselves, except that, far in the distance, we could see a fishing-punt. We skimmed over the water, and no one spoke.—I was steering.

Verbs with durative association denoting condition, or a permanent circumstance, vary as to the use of the simple or the expanded form according to the view taken of the verbal content. The simple form of these verbs: *he lives in the country*, is a statement of an existing circumstance, but does not give any information as to the duration of this circumstance; the expanded form: *he is living in the country*, tells us that the circumstance is of limited duration (i.e. 'living there for the time being').—Examples are: *the ship sailed at midnight. And for two hours her husband stayed with her, while the child was put to bed / He caught cold, inflammation of the lungs set in, and on January 22 he was a dying man. By a curious chance, young Dr Stockmar was staying in the house at the time // the Rampions lived in Chelsea. Their house consisted of one large studio . . . / Esther was not in the house when V. arrived. Esther was not living at home // She bore a secret affliction / I was really touched by the meek way in which the two ladies were bearing their disappointment.*

Certain verbs are used only for information about facts; these are found only in the simple form, e.g. *believe, belong, consist, contain, disapprove, equal, matter, possess, resemble, signify, suffice.*

1.6.9.4 The degree of significance of the verb determines whether it can be used in the expanded form. This can best be seen by comparing the two main uses of *think*; with a clear durative content (= 'ponder, reflect'), the verb appears in the expanded form to the usual extent: *I've been thinking it all over / What a happiness, she was thinking, to have him again*; but with reduced content (= 'it seems to . . .') it is not found in the expanded form in standard English: *she thought she saw something white*. Other examples of verbs with little content are: *I bear you won a prize recently / I see what it is / this means that he will be punished / I suppose you are right / for everyday activities in the Power Age, it (a knowledge of mathematics) helps to solve many problems of communication and meaning*;—but in dialect and colloquial speech such verbs with little content occur in the expanded form: *that's what's gi'en her that red neb, I'm thinking / for the families affected (by a dramatic dispersal) this is meaning more uprooting.*

Among verbs with reduced content may be noted *lie*, *sit*, and *stand* when immediately followed by a present participle form: *the Savage lay sleeping in the heather / he sat watching her / S. stood looking down at the body.*

Since *be* is particularly weak in content it is usually not found in the expanded form, even when forming part of combinations having the time concept characteristic of expanded tenses: *Your heart is throbbing against hers! Her arms are round you. Your spirit is at one with hers. The voices of the air are singing to you.*—But as a passive auxiliary verb the expanded form is common: *the ship is being loaded / she felt as though her heart were being crushed within her breast / Who could be being married?*—When *be* is followed by an adjective or substantive as a predicative complement, it appears in the expanded form when *be* + the predicative complement connote action (these expressions very often have a humorous or ironic value): *people are being civil to him / she was being absurd / I was only being silly // Meanwhile he floated round Europe on a very small allowance and was being an artist / Chuffy was being the genial host / he thinks he is being the noble fellow / Is she (i.e. a snuffling dog) being a nuisance?*

The Tenses of the Verb

1.7.1 The present tense may express (1) action or existence at the moment of speaking: *he is coming up the stairs / I love you / There goes the bell!*—For the use of the expanded versus the simple verbal form see **1.6.9**; (2) timelessness: *beer and cheese go well together / the sun rises in the east / 6 is an even number*; (3) repetition: *I get up at seven / I call on her twice a week / he often takes other people's ideas.*

1.7.1.1 The present tense may be used of the past in order to make a description seem present and vivid; this 'historic present' is used both in historical accounts, and in dramatic descriptions in fiction etc., and may here replace the usual preterite: (1603) *Hitherto interest had centred round the king, or round the Church . . . Now . . . everyone's eyes are fixed upon Parliament. Parliament displays quite a new vigour // I had written . . . a trifling collection of verses: I had forgotten about them, but they entered my story again . . . the scene is bright in my mind's eye. N. and his subalterns . . . are arguing . . . when . . . a shell . . . hits the ground before our window and sends a noscap into our wallpaper. We are still talking about this mishit . . . when . . . H. appears and surprises us almost as much with a demand for me. I am wanted at battalion headquarters. A review of my poems has been printed in the Times Literary Supplement . . . my Colonel has seen it and is overjoyed . . . How rosy he looks.*

1.7.1.2 The present tense may be used of the future in subordinate clauses, when the main clause to which they are attached expresses or implies the future: *if he comes, I will tell him / when you try it a second time, you'll succeed better / the sooner you start the sooner you will get there / we are waiting until he comes.*

In main clauses the simple present cannot be used with ordinary future value; and in sentences such as: *I leave for Paris on Tuesday / the ship sails tomorrow / the lease expires in 1969* the present tense expresses something at present planned or assumed, and coming into effect in the future.

1.7.1.3 In certain verbs the present is to be found with the time value otherwise attached to the perfect: *I bear that you have become engaged / I learn that you are going to leave / I forget what happened.*

1.7.1.4 The present may be used instead of the preterite in indirect statements, where the usual sequence of tenses: *he says he is going tomorrow* > *he said he was going tomorrow* may be counteracted by the real time value of the content of the subordinate clause: *he said he is going tomorrow* // *he said that two and two was/is not always four* // *he told me that she sang/sings beautifully*. Of course the preterite is used if the statement can only be taken as a report: *he said Nature was too green and too badly lighted*.

1.7.2 The preterite is used of existence or action which is regarded as completed in the past; the distance between this completion and the present may be long or short—even very short—, expressed or implicit: *Alfred the Great as a child was taught by St Swithun* / *His Majesty the King yesterday received the Rev. William Booth* / *it was an astronomer who, by observing that the eclipses of Jupiter's moons were later than theory demanded . . . , showed that we can see things as they were, and that light moves with a finite speed*.—For the preterite's approximation to the perfect, see **1.7.3.1** ff.

1.7.2.1 The preterite is used in novels to describe an imaginary reality, including that of novels of the future: *The Park Lane Hospital for the Dying was a sixty-story tower of primrose tiles. As the Savage stepped out of his taxicopter a convoy of gaily-coloured aerial hearses rose whirring from the roof and darted away across the Park* (Aldous Huxley: *Brave New World*).

1.7.2.2 The preterite is used of 1) the present in indirect statements: (account of a parliamentary debate) *our motives were not the isolation and stifling of Germany. Germany was isolating herself, . . . we were willing on condition to cooperate with her and others. The condition was a change in the spirit which led her responsible spokesmen to brand a friendly country as thieves*; 2) hypothetical matters: *I wish I knew what is happening* / *If I could only afford to bring him up better / you might go and help her* / *it's high time we went* / *you had better go* / *were it not for him, I should go there at once*; 3) the future, corresponding to the use of the present tense mentioned in **1.7.1.2**: *the committee suggests that there should be voted in advance a standing fund, on which it would be possible to draw when exceptional works came on the market* // *On Wednesday next he sailed for Australia from San Francisco; sailed, that is, if he escaped destruction in Larry Blaesdale's car—or if nothing else happened to him*.

For the approximation of the preterite to the pluperfect see 1.7.4.1.

1.7.3 The perfect tense refers to past and present together: if the verb has a durative or iterative association, the perfect signifies that an action or condition begun in the past still continues, or can be expected to recur in the present: *I have stayed here for a week // there have been times in my life when I required soothing, and then I have felt that a whiff of tobacco stills and softens one like a kiss of a little child.*—If the verb has a perfective association the perfect tense signifies that the effects (result) of the past action (change) are to be seen in the present: *Evidently it has thawed during the night / I have written a letter to my father.*

1.7.3.1 The past aspect of the time content of the perfect brings it into contact with the preterite. The difference—connection with the present in the case of the perfect tense as against distinction or distance from the present in the case of the preterite—may be more or less clear in different cases.

If the verb has a durative or iterative association, the difference in content between the two tenses is usually clear: whether an action or condition has been completed in the past, or still continues or can be expected to recur. *My father lived through three wars* implies that he is dead; *my father has lived* etc. that he is still alive. *As many as 32 emperors and kings were crowned at Aachen / from William the Conqueror onward every sovereign has been crowned at Westminster excepting Edward V // I knew one boy who disliked Eton when he was there, and said so.—I have known several who said that they had disliked it afterwards.*

If the verb has a perfective association the difference may often seem less, in that the same phenomenon can often be described both in the preterite and in the perfect; the former then expresses the action or change in question as happening, stressing the 'when' or 'how'; the latter expresses it as a fact with reference to the result or after-effects in the present: *he lost his wife in a motor accident* versus *he has lost his wife // Florence became the home of an intellectual Revival / St Swithun's name-day has become a household word in English life // John Masefield wrote The Tragedy of Nan in prose with a kind of rustic music, and thus invited comparison with the contemporary successes of Yeats and Synge / Mr Arnold Bennett has written a religious tract called The Human Machine.*

1.7.3.2 As can be seen from the examples given hitherto of the use of the preterite and perfect, the time concepts attached to these tenses are often implied: *What happened?* is used with the implication 'on the occasion in question'; *what has happened?* similarly with the implication 'I see that something has happened; what is it?'—As regards explicit statements of time, it is clear that some can be combined with only one of the two tenses: *He died yesterday / Bronze Age prosperity did not rest only on pastoralism / I was busy at that moment // I've been waiting these three weeks / the enemy has not used gas as yet / I have heard nothing from him up to now*; while others may have both temporal associations: *Did you see him this morning?* is asked later in the day, *Have you seen him this morning?* is said while it is still morning; *he once lived in Italy*, here *once* = 'formerly'; *I've been there once*, here *once* is the opposite of 'several times'; *she gained a stylish victory over him recently*, i.e. 'a short time ago'; *the verb 'to blitz' has recently been used in other contexts*, i.e. 'of late'.

Particular interest is attached to the use of the preterite and perfect in combination with *always*, *ever*, *never*:

With *always* we find the usual distribution of the two tenses: *it was always a part of the plan of the book that it should be furnished with illustrations*, viz. 'when the book was being prepared'; *I forgave him. I always loved him* (i.e. the feelings referred to are those of that time); *I told him the whole thing. I was always of a communicative disposition // the community has always counted for more than the State in England*, i.e. 'and this is still the case'; *I have always said that when the couple of them left Eden they hid and took away with them an onion / it has always seemed to me that the Public Prosecutor is neglecting his duties*. However if *always* signifies circumstance rather than time, i.e. = 'in any circumstance, anyhow', the preterite is used even if the moment of speaking is included: *just then, as if by a miracle, the floor of the money-box turned gently round in her hand, and the great secret was revealed . . . 'Yes', I said, 'you were always lucky'*.

When *ever* has a temporal value we find the usual distribution of the preterite and perfect: *were you ever married?*, namely 'in the earlier period of your life which I do not know about'; *did you ever meet my brother?*, namely 'when you had the chance'; *no one ever loved me*, i.e. 'when I was young', or something of the kind // *have you ever been up in an aeroplane? / have you ever met*

him? / the ball was more closely packed than I have ever seen it for a meeting.

When *ever* is an intensive adverb (approaching the meaning of 'whatever' or 'at all') it takes the preterite: *no man ever impressed me quite so much as Mr Gladstone / I think it is one of the most delightful things that ever was written / the proudest man I ever met was a great naturalist who had seen a pair of Marsh Harriers make the same manœuvre*; thus also in rhetorical questions: *did you ever see anything to beat it? / did you ever hear of such a thing?*—When *ever* is used archaically in the sense of 'always', it takes the preterite: *I was ever of opinion that . . .*

With *never* the use of the two tenses is similar to that in sentences with *ever*; of time: *I never spoke better*, namely 'than on that occasion' / *Kipling never talked of war in terms used by Treitschke* // *I have never spoken better in my life*, namely 'than on this occasion' / *the moderns do not realize modernity. They have never known anything else.*—Used intensively (= 'certainly not') *never* takes the preterite: *I never spoke to her in my life / I was never one to write by the calendar.*

1.7.4 The pluperfect denotes in particular something that is further back in time than something else that is in the past tense. The pluperfect may be said to correspond to the concepts of both the preterite and the perfect as viewed from a point in the past: *until 1776 this was the only form of the Anthology. However, the Palatine ms. had been discovered in the winter of 1606–7 / they found that the palace where they had feasted the night before was a desolation* // *till towards the end of the nineteenth century it seemed that the main lines of physical science had been laid down once and for all / the fourth of August, 1914, marked the end of an era. Then it was realized how much had depended on London.*

1.7.4.1 The pluperfect approximates to the preterite in certain cases:

(1) *Was/were* alternates with *had been* in combination with the past participle of verbs with a perfective association in cases such as: *he felt calm with the knowledge that everything was now settled. Yes, everything had been settled*; that is, where the same phenomenon can be regarded as action and as the resultant condition, the pluperfect and preterite are used respectively.—Other examples are: *In every*

outward respect he was one of the most fortunate of mankind. He had been born into the midst of riches, brilliance, and power / Prince Albert had been born just three months after his cousin Victoria / he was born rich / he was born under a lucky star.

(2) The preterite is often substituted for the pluperfect when the stress is on the logical interdependence rather than on the temporal relation: *In the seventeenth century English biological science was made famous by the work of William Harvey. Before Harvey's day men thought that arterial and venous blood were separate streams / Though it ended in revolution, the eighteenth century opened placidly with the 'Peace of the Augustans'.* This is seen particularly after the conjunctions *after* and *before*; compare: *after her husband died, she went to live with her parents* and *this happened after the Portuguese had settled in East India.*

(3) With certain verbs, e.g. *hope, mean, think*, the preterite + perfect infinitive is sometimes replaced by the pluperfect + infinitive: *I meant to have given you the money this morning* becomes *I had meant to give you the money this morning*, or a mixture of the two expressions: *I had meant to have given you the money.*

1.7.4.2 The pluperfect is furthermore used of past hypothetical matters: *I wish I had been present on that occasion / If I had known, I might have helped you / Had the Roman towns followed the prehistoric light soil occupation of the country, they must have perished.* (This construction, with inversion instead of a conjunction to express the conditional concept, is literary usage.)—But the pluperfect can also be used of present hypothetical matters, stressing the improbability of the hypothesis: *If I had been in better health, I should have joined you. You had better start without me.*

Auxiliary Verbs

1.8 (1) The phonetic changes resulting from the unstressed use of the auxiliary verbs are often reproduced in the orthography, inter alia in rendering direct speech: *I'm*; *we're*; *I'll*; *d'you*. In some cases two of these verbs are thus merged together: *it's* (it has, it is); *we'd* (we had, we would).

(2) These verbs are reduced in content; the modal verbs (*can*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, *will*), which can occur only with the concept of a full verb attached either explicitly or implicitly (e.g. *he will come if he can*), may be said merely to express the condition for which the statement in question is valid. The situation giving rise to the statement *That is the Tower*, could also elicit expressions such as: *it can/could/may/must/will be the Tower*, these expressions adding a concept of probability, possibility, logical necessity, future confirmation, or the like, to what in the first statement was expressed simply as a fact.

Be

1.8.1.1 *Be* + *to* + infinitive denotes the future with certain secondary meanings:

(1) 'what is destined to happen': *I feel confident that this is not to be / he was to die young*;

(2) an arrangement: *I am to see him tomorrow / we were to meet at five*;

(3) a command by a third party (i.e. an expression of the will of someone other than the speaker): *this letter is to be delivered by six / there had been a telephone call. I was to go home at once*;

(4) duty and/or possibility: *At what time am I to come? / the report is to be found in the evening paper / I wonder where he was to find it*. (For the active versus the passive form of the infinitive when the content is passive see **1.3.5**.)

For *be* as an auxiliary verb in the formation of expanded verbal

forms see 1.6.8, of the passive see 1.5.9, for *be* versus *have* in combinations such as *be/have gone* see 1.1.2 and 1.5.7.

1.8.1.2 *To be* may be found inserted with a number of verbs that can be used as copulas: *he turned out (to be) an excellent administrator / it proved (to be) sufficient / he seemed (to be) a happy man*.—The expressions without *to be* connote a change, or what applies at the particular moment, while the expressions with *to be* connote a condition with no thought of its beginning: *it was hoped that the new queen would prove an Elizabeth without her tyranny / he proved to be innocent*.—For the object (+ *to be*) + predicative complement see 1.3.6.6.

Have

1.8.2.1 For *have to* + infinitive used to supply the missing tenses of *must* see 1.8.6.—In standard English the combination *have got* is often substituted for *have* as a full verb with object: *I have a house of my own* when resultative association is added to this verbal concept: *I have got a house of my own / he has got a black eye*. In colloquial speech *have got* is often substituted for *have* without this association: *she has got blue eyes*, and also commonly for *have* followed by *to* + infin.: *I have got to go there today / she has got to work hard for a living*.

1.8.2.2 *Have* + accusative + infinitive is used sometimes with the significance 'experience that . . .': *he had something happen to him*, sometimes together with *will*, *would* to express a concept such as *want*: *What would you have me do? / I would have you (to) know*.

For *have* and *be* + past participle of intransitive verbs see 1.1.2 and 1.5.7 ;—*have* + obj. + past part., 1.5.8.

Do

1.8.3.1(1) *Do* + infinitive replaces finite present and preterite forms and the imperative when the verbal concept is negated by *not*: *I do not understand this / he did not come / do not go!*—Compare *he never came*.

(2) *Do* + infinitive replaces finite present and preterite forms in interrogative main clauses: *What does it matter? / When did he come? / Do you like it?*—If however an interrogative pronoun or an interrogative phrase forms the subject this does not involve paraphrase with *do*: *Who said so? / What happened? / How many came?*

(3) Paraphrase with *do* is used to give emphasis: *Do help me! / You'll excuse me passing this on to you, but it does seem you ought to know / He promised to come and he did come.*

(4) Paraphrase with *do* is often found together with inversion, when in rhetorical language the object or predicative complement of the object or adverbial members begin the sentence: *their chief refreshment is mares' milk. Plain water do they abhor / So selfish does our life make us / Well did I know him / bitterly did we repent our decision.*—This applies particularly when a negative adverb(ial phrase) begins the sentence: *never did I see such a sight / I don't know, nor do I care / not till then did I realize what had happened.*

(5) Paraphrases with *do* occasionally occur for reasons of euphony: *we do ordinarily think of him as 'great' / she does but want to talk with you / they did in some way suggest, present, convey—I hardly know which word to use—experiences it was otherwise impossible to tell.*

1.8.3.2 In rhetorical language, paraphrase with *do* is occasionally lacking in interrogative and negative sentences; this applies chiefly to stock expressions (Standard English uses the paraphrase with *do*): *How went it? / What say you to a walking-tour? / How came the 'good' Rochester to plan deliberate bigamy? / How comes it that . . . ? / it matters not that they sometimes forget / they carried I know not what in their panniers / he knew not where to look / the state of the roads troubles him not / When Rider Haggard heard these things, he rested not till he had made the colonel's acquaintance.*

1.8.3.3 If *not* does not belong to the verb, but to another member, there is no paraphrase: *gloves and shoes; her own daughter cared not a straw for either of them / in his French writings one finds not a single German word / he not only kept the Queen informed as to the general course of business in the Cabinet, but revealed to her the part taken in its discussions by individual members / Jim, her eldest*

son annoyed her not at all / the windmill gave us not enough water; but there is considerable vacillation: this did not a little increase the perturbation of her thoughts / he did not often spend a Sunday there.

A special case is formed by verbs such as *appear, hope, seem, suppose, think*, etc. + infinitive or a (*that*)-clause. The construction with *not* attached to the dependent member logically to be expected: *he seemed not to notice / I suppose he won't go*, which is the explanation of the lack of paraphrase in such expressions as *I hope not / I suppose not / I think not*, is very often replaced by expressions with *not* attached to the governing verb: *the business of the Jewish-owned restaurants does not appear to have been badly affected / the child doesn't seem to be well / I don't suppose I shall be very long / I don't think you'd better talk so loud.*

1.8.3.4 Some auxiliary verbs never have the paraphrase with *do*; this applies to *can, may, must, ought, shall, will*: *you must not take that / ought he to go?*; with others it is found in certain cases: *be, have; dare* (see 1.8.8.1 f.), *need* (see 1.8.8.3); *let; used to* (see 1.8.10).

1.8.3.5 *Be* is paraphrased in the imperative: *don't be a fool! / do be good!*—In other cases paraphrase is extremely rare: *Why don't you take her to your warm heart, even now, and comfort her inside there? Why don't you be kind to her poor ghost, bodily?* (D. H. Lawrence: *Glad Ghosts*).

1.8.3.6 As an auxiliary verb in the perfect and pluperfect, *have* is never paraphrased with *do*; in all other constructions *have* can be paraphrased with *do*; the aspect of the verb is here the determining factor. In those cases where paraphrase with *do* is not used, *have got* replaces *do* in colloquial speech:

Have to + infinitive: with an association of a perfective single action there is no paraphrase, with iterative or durative association *do* is used: *have you to go there now? / I haven't to go to church today // Have you got to go and see him? / it had not got to be done just then // What fun it would be if one didn't have to think about happiness! / he doesn't have to go to chapel (on Sundays) / there was something about his father that he hated . . . why, why did he have to say these things?*—In American (and increasingly in British English) paraphrase with *do* is also used in the type first mentioned.

If *have* + object has perfective association (approximately = take, get, experience), it is paraphrased with *do*; this also applies to *have* + obj. + past part.: *What do you have for breakfast?* / *Did he have a bad night?* / *How often does your dog have puppies?* / *We did not have much of a breakfast* / *we didn't have much difficulty* / *we did have a good time* // *did you have the picture framed?* / *if those boys don't have something done to them, it is a shocking shame* / *when I was your age, ladies of rank did not have their photographs exposed in the shop-windows.*

If *have* + object does not have perfective association, but has the value of 'possess', it is not paraphrased with *do* where it is a case of an individual instance (but is here replaced by *have got* in colloquial speech); but where it is a case of the non-individual it is generally paraphrased with *do*: *'But have we room?' asked the man in a tone which showed that he was reluctant to receive a guest* / *Had the Green Knight a green face?* / *if you haven't a cook a little bell-ringing in the basement does no harm* / *Philip had not a basket of his own, but sat with Sally* / *he had not the religious temperament* // *How many shares have you got in the company?* / *he hasn't got a very good memory* // *do savages ever have toothache?* / *all back vowels do not have exactly the same degree of tongue-retraction* / *the great estates do not always have as their owners titled or untitled proprietors* // *many husbands have not the courage to end a marriage which ought to be ended.*—In American paraphrase with *do* is also common in the first type: *How much money do you have?*

1.8.3.7 With *let*, paraphrase with *do* is common usage: *did you let him try?* / *Don't let the fire go out!*—However in written English paraphrase may be lacking in the imperative: *let us not do that!*

1.8.3.8 *Do* may replace a preceding verb, and one or more of the members dependent upon it: *Who saw him kill the bird?*—*I did* / *they looked upon him, as painters often do writers* / *he suffers more than you do* / *he regretted, did the worthy Mr T., that . . .* This substitute verb is not paraphrased with *do*: *But they don't affect me particularly.* *Do they you?* / *Who took the apple,—I didn't.*—The verbs replaceable by *do* are usually full verbs, but one may also find *have* replaced: *he has other girls, doesn't he?* / *This is one of the fields in which the police necessarily have some privilege, as do in lesser degree certain other officials such as Customs officers.*

Can, may, must, ought

1.8.4 *Can* denotes :

(1) ability, capacity: *he can read Russian / can he write with the left hand? / he cannot walk*. When the subject denotes a 'non-person' there is close approximation to *will*: *this poem can / will hardly bear translation*; the expression with *will* however tends to have future association, e.g. 'a translation which we are contemplating', while the expression with *can* tends to have present time association, e.g. 'a translation we are engaged on'.—When speaking of the past, *could* corresponds to this value of *can*: *he could read Russian at the age of six*.

Apart from the present and the preterite, this concept is expressed by forms of *be able to*: *shall you be able to go there? / I have not been able to find the book*; but in the present and (especially) in the preterite also expressions with *able* replace *can* and *could* because of the ambiguity of these words: *he is not able to come / he was able to find his way back*.

(2) possibility: *can it be true? / it cannot be true / landings can be made attractive / gales can be strong enough on the Riviera / several days can pass before the debate closes and the proposal is put to the vote*. In content *can* here approaches *may*; *can* connotes an actual possibility, while *may* connotes an uncertain possibility (1.8.5). The two can be very close to each other: *our notepaper and envelopes can be obtained from all good stationers and stores / copies are now ready and may be obtained by order from bookshops and bookstalls and on application at The Times office*.

Could used of this concept signifies the hypothetical, not past time: *it could be true*.—The past must be expressed with the aid of the perfect of the attached infinitive: *can / could he have told her?*

Could often replaces *can* about present time in other circumstances also; *could* here expresses either politeness, or, as above, the hypothetical: *could you give me a light? / I could do with a hot meal / he could do it if he tried*.

(3) permission: *you can go now / can I take that chair?*—*Can* is here colloquial for *may*.

1.8.5 *May* denotes:

(1) uncertain possibility: *it may happen*.—The negative expressions corresponding in content: *it cannot happen twice in a man's life* and *it may not happen again* connote respectively 'it is not possible that . . .' and 'it is possible that . . . not . . .' Thus *may* and *may not* in these cases cover roughly the same reality; they are often united in order to stress the uncertainty: *it may or may not happen / he may come or he may not*.—For approximation to *can* see also 1.8.4.

The past of this value of *may* is not expressed by *might*; *it might happen* connotes present time with the subsidiary value of improbability. The past has to be expressed by the perfect of the attached infinitive: *it may / might have happened on another occasion*.

(2) permission: *may I trouble you? / you may go now*.—Corresponding negative expressions are: *you must not disturb me / you must not leave now / no ships must discharge oil within 50 miles of the coast*; or, of less peremptory prohibitions: *you may not leave now*; this form of expression is frequently used of a non-personal prohibition: *in this list you will find what you may not do with your bed / this volume may not be introduced into Great Britain / we may not play ping-pong on Sundays*.

Might is used with this value both of the present, and then with a subsidiary value of greater politeness: *Might I make a suggestion?*; and of the past: *a very strict moral code was enjoined upon members of the new church. You were forbidden to have anything to do with prostitutes. Nor might you get drunk or smoke cigarettes*.

(3) wish: *may you be happy! / Might I find my mother alive!*

(4) request; this is less peremptory than the imperative: *you may go and see / you might help me wash up*.

(5) intention; in subordinate clauses introduced by (*so/in order*) *that*: *tell him so that he may know before anybody else / I gave him the book that he might have something to read on the journey*.

(6) concession: *however just his appeal may be, it will be disregarded / even though he might fail this time, he could try again*.

1.8.6 *Must* denotes necessity (1) arising from someone's will: *you must do as you are told / you mustn't do that*, (2) arising from circumstances: *we must see what can be done about it / must you*

go now? (3) based on logic: *he must be the man we're looking for / it must be true*, (4) as an inward urge: *Well, go and see her, if you must*.—In the cases mentioned under (2), *have to*, in colloquial speech often *have got to*, can replace *must* as a stronger expression: *we have (got) to go now*.

Must cannot indicate past time in itself; but with the support of another past tense it can be used of the past, particularly frequently in indirect speech: *Mary Ann, the maid, didn't like fires all over the place. If they wanted all them fires they must keep a second girl / he said he must leave in the morning / Being in Austria was like being on a wrecked ship that must sink after a certain short length of time / I thought it must be true / see her he must and would*.—But apart from such cases the past is expressed by linking the perfect infinitive with *must* used to expressed logically conditioned necessity: *it must have been the case*, and by means of *had to* for the other values: *he had to go, because his uncle told him to / I had to leave by an early train*.

1.8.7 *Ought* denotes what can in fairness be expected (1) of a person: *You ought to go at once / something ought to be done about it*; (2) of circumstances: *if they started at dawn, they ought to be there by now*. In content *ought* approximates to *should* (1.8.9.7(4)), but is more emphatic.

Ought cannot in itself indicate past time; but with the support of a preterite form it can be used of the past: *he thought he ought to help her*. Otherwise the past is expressed by attaching the perfect infinitive to *ought*: *you ought to have been there*.

Dare, need

1.8.8.1 *Dare* and *need* can be regular verbs: *I will dare to say this much / he had not dared hope that / he did not dare to go / Who dares to go? / we shall need to go back a little further / to write well for children one needs to understand the world of the child at play / he does not need to be told*.

But these verbs can also be treated as modal auxiliaries: lack -s in the third pers. sing. present, and lack paraphrase with *do*. (For the use of *to* with the attached infinitive see 1.3.3.2.)

1.8.8.2 *Dare* as a modal verb is found particularly in interrogative and negative sentences, and in statements containing uncertainty,

and then expresses the subject's attitude towards the action expressed by the infinitive, while *dare* as a full verb is descriptive rather of the subject: *she dare not go through the wood / he does not dare to go back to the old place*.—Other examples of *dare* as a modal verb are: *dare you tell her the truth?—I daren't / I wonder whether he dare come*.

In the preterite the usual form is *dared*: *how dared you treat her like that? / I dared not hurt them*.—The old preterite form *durst* can still be encountered in literary English acting as a subjunctive: *If only I durst speak to her!*—It is considered incorrect to use *dare* as the preterite (parallel to *must* and *ought*): *I knew she daren't try / I saw a small boy . . . tears running down his face . . . He dare not return without delivering his bread*.

1.8.8.3 When *need* is used as a full verb, it may be said more particularly to have an association of requirement attached to the subject: *The work of the Cancer Research Centre needs to be carried out more extensively and intensively*; when *need* is used as a modal verb, this association is attached rather to the circumstances: *need you go now?*—Compare these two examples from The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (Oxf. Univ. Press): *He did not need to be reminded of it* (i.e. he knew it already) and *We needn't have hurried* (i.e. there was no reason to hurry). Further examples of *need* as a modal verb are: *the governors needn't be very active / need we distinguish between the introduction of words and the introduction of ideas*.

In reference to the past, *need* as a modal verb often behaves like other modal auxiliaries, that is, the past is expressed by the perfect form of the dependent infinitive: *you needn't have told him*; if the past is expressed by the governing verb, *need* is used unchanged: *he told me I needn't wait*. Otherwise *needed* is the correct form: *they needed not to be counted*. In this last type the use of *to* varies somewhat: *I . . . set about salvaging what was wanted . . . we needed not range far, for the greying, haversacked British dead were all round* (Edmund Blunden: *Undertones of War* Ch. XIII).

Shall, will, should, would

1.8.9.1 Like the other modal auxiliaries, *shall* and *will* often express a combination of a future concept and a modal concept: *he may*

come / he must go there / I will help you / you shall have the money; but unlike the others *shall* and *will* can also be used with hardly any modal content, so that they may justly be said to express futurity pure.

The future concept attached to *shall* and *will* is particularly prominent when these verbs take the infinitive of verbs with perfective association, and more especially the passive infinitive: *he will get there before long / I shall arrive in the morning / she will be surprised / he will get killed*, and when they take a verb whose content is akin to the modal concepts of these two auxiliary verbs: *I shall have to go / she will like a cup of tea / he will want to know*.—The modal aspect of the content of these verbs (i.e. they denote the present condition for which the statement is valid) is particularly prominent when they take the infinitive of verbs with durative association, and especially in negative and interrogative sentences: *you shan't wait for her / he will not stand such nonsense / Will you stay to tea?*

1.8.9.2 The other most important verbal expressions of the future are:

The simple present form, used of a future circumstance whose occurrence is already now taken for granted: *I return to England tomorrow / look more closely and you discover that it is only a screen*—see also 1.7.1.2.

Expanded present forms of verbs with perfective association, of the future carrying into effect of action assumed to be in preparation in the present: *we are sending the parcel / are you leaving?*—see 1.6.9.1(2).

Be + to + infinitive: see 1.8.1.1. *Have + to + infinitive*: see 1.8.6.

Be going to + infinitive, mainly of the near future (it often has an association of intention): *it is going to rain / we are going to give a dance*.

Be about to + inf., *be on the point of + gerund*, of the immediate future.

1.8.9.3

Shall with modal value denotes a concept of necessity or compulsion, arising from (1) the will of a person (not the subject, most frequently the speaker;—the value of the sentence is often a promise or a threat, according to the context): *Have you determined that Iris shall not marry this boy? / Iris shall marry in a month's time / shall I send the parcel? / you shall have the money tomorrow /*

you shall never see me again / he says he won't go, but he shall; (2) the will of the subject; this is found in assertions in the 1st person, emotionally strong expressions of what is assumed to be the speaker's innermost conviction; not of momentary wishes; this *shall* is emphatic: *I shall go on spelling my name like this / I shall not marry him, whatever you say*; (3) the will of 'destiny': *all shall die*. This use is now archaic (cf. *must*, 1.8.6(2)).

A further archaic use of *shall* is to be found in subordinate clauses to express the association of 'the potential': *he is granted leave of absence until his appointment shall expire*; the present tense is here used in ordinary speech.

1.8.9.4 *Will* with modal association expresses (1) the will or wish of the subject (subject denoting person): *I will complete this narrative / Will you come? / He won't go*; (2) (stressed) unaccommodating attitude on the part of the subject (a person); something unavoidable (subject personified); *boys 'will be boys / he will meddle in things that don't concern him // accidents will happen / death will come, when it will come*; (3) estimated capacity (subject a non-person): *the hall will hold a hundred people*.—*Will* can furthermore be used of (4) something that recurs so often that it may be expected to happen again: *he will sit like that for hours / when you are on the point of success, something will go wrong*; (5) supposition: *that will be the Tower / you will be wondering why I have asked you to come / There's my brother! He will know*.

1.8.9.5 Of the future pure, *shall* is used in the 1st person, *will* in the 2nd and 3rd: *I shall pay for it tomorrow. I shall be at death's door / you will be run over / she will come of age next year*.—Note that *you and I* takes *will*: *you and I will have to go*; compare *we shall have to go*.

In the U.S.A. *will* is common in the 1st person of the future pure. The following note illustrates the difference between American and British English on this point: *Asked if the airship would again fly over Britain the captain is said to have replied, 'I do not think we will make them angry this time.'* In plain English this means: 'We like to anger them now and then; we will when we like. This time I think we won't.' What I presume he wished to imply was: 'I do not think we shall (by any mischance or foreseeable event do anything to) make them angry.'

1.8.9.6 The use of *shall* and *will* in indirect speech normally corresponds to the distribution of these two verbs in direct speech:

(with modal value) *he says you shall go / he says he will not help her* // (with the value of pure future) *he says he shall have to go / he says his brother will have to go*.—Used of pure future however the 3rd pers. *shall* is often replaced by *will*; the penultimate example may thus also be expressed: *he says he will have to go*, in spite of the direct speech form *I shall have to go*.

In questions the verb to be expected in the answer is commonly used: *What shall she do next? / Will you help her? / 'You're going to live with me now . . . Shall you like that?' / How will canal dues be paid?*

1.8.9.7 *Should* with a content corresponding to the modal value of *shall* does not in itself express the past, but can be used of the present with a less crude value compared with the corresponding expression with *shall*: *you should go and see her*. Past time must either be expressed by the perfect form of the attached infinitive: *you should have waited for him*, or appear from the context: *These fortifications were manned by no troops worth the name; here he should strike across the Syrian desert / then they would have quite a little tussle about which should yield*.

Should may furthermore express (1) the possible: *if he should come, I will let you know*; (2) the attitude (astonishment, indignation, etc.) of the speaker or writer towards the content of the sentence: *it is unjust that we should have to submit to such treatment / it is incredible that S. should have entered the trap / it is natural that we should pride ourselves on such triumphs / that it should come to this! / How should I know? / Why should you suspect me?*—Compare expressions without this element: *it is strange that so few explore beyond the limits of a chosen subject / it was particularly unfortunate that he took not the slightest interest in politics / it is not surprising that scholars are not agreed upon this subject*; (3) intention: *I bought the book so that you should be able to read it*; compare *might* (1.8.5(5)) with similar value + association of possibility; (4) what may reasonably be expected: *he should be there by now*; compare *ought* (1.8.7(2)).

1.8.9.8 *Would* with a content corresponding to the modal value of *will* may to a far greater extent than *should* express the past: *I would not help her / I was for letting you sleep on, but they would go up and wake you*; apart from negative sentences *would* is not often used of volition, however; it is replaced by expressions with *want*:

he *wanted to go and wake you*.—Like *should*, *would* can be used of present time with a less crude value than corresponding expressions with *will*: *would you tell me what happened? / if only it would stop raining*.

Otherwise *would* with modal value corresponds to *will* (cf. 1.8.9.4): (1) *I would not pay*; (2) *My ancestors would have their portraits painted by Romney . . . why couldn't they have chosen Gainsborough . . .? / that's just what would happen*; (3) *the hall would hold a hundred people*; (4) *he would sit like that for hours*; (5) *Entered the little lady in her finery and her crumpled prettiness. She would not be very old; perhaps younger than fifty*.

1.8.9.9 The use of *should* and *would* in indirect speech in most cases reflects the use of *shall* and *will* in direct speech: (with modal value) *on October 1 the German Army began its 'invasion' of Czechoslovakia as Herr Hitler had promised that it should / we said we would pay the money back* // (with future value) *he said he should have to do it / they said he would hate to do it*; where the pure future is transposed into the past, it is now however more common to find *should* in the 1st person, *would* in the 2nd and 3rd, irrespective of the corresponding expressions' use of *shall* and *will* in direct speech: *they told me that if I turned to the left I should presently come to a two-story building / he said he would have to go*.

In the main sentence of hypothetical statements *should* is used in the 1st person, *would* in the 2nd and 3rd: *I should not have been surprised if Louise had had a heart attack then / if you took those pills, you would die / if she had been there, he would have been happy*.

Used to

1.8.10 *Used + to + infinitive* is to be found in colloquial speech treated as a full verb, in so far as it is paraphrased with *do* in negative and interrogative sentences, and replaced by this auxiliary verb: *he didn't use to smoke / did you use to do it? / he used to live there, didn't he? / 'Well, 'e didn't used to*;—but normally it is treated as an auxiliary verb: *he used not (use(d)n't) /ju:snt/ to smoke / used you to know him? / he used to live here, use(d)n't he? / Usen't we to be happy?*

Used to expresses the concept attached particularly to the preterite of verbs: that the circumstance in question existed in the past, but

has ceased. Attached to the infinitive of verbs with durative association, *used to* replaces the information as to the point of time which must otherwise be added: *I used to live in London* is a completed statement, while *I lived in London* is not complete in itself, but requires the addition of, for instance, *at one time*.

If *used to* is linked with the infinitive of verbs with perfective association, the value of the combination will be that of repeated action throughout a period completed in the past: *when he sometimes could not sleep at night Alfred used to go to the Cathedral to pray*. This value may approximate closely to *would* + infinitive: *he would nod to her when they met*. The difference is that *would* + infinitive indicates that the repeated action was a habit so deeply rooted in the subject that this action was to be expected of him, while *used to* only indicates that the circumstance in question no longer exists; compare: *he would smoke a pipe before going to bed / I used to smoke pipes when I was young // he would spend most evenings playing chess / he used to spend most evenings at his uncle's house*.

NOUNS

2.1.1 It is a little difficult to define the limits of this part of speech, since it approximates to pronouns on the one hand, and adjectives on the other; compare *I take it that you will start at once* and *he is quite alive to the fact that the expedition may prove dangerous / the nervous system of the human body* and *a shell knocked the porch in, and some more of my nerve system with it / we can meet all your steel tube and tubular requirements / the Scots, who had come from Ireland about sixty years before, were already Christian / soon after his death his subjects became Christians.*

2.1.2 If we begin by examining the possibility of a form criterion, it is clear that an *s*-suffix in the genitive will not serve as such, since it can be attached to words belonging to every part of speech which is used substantively: *an hour or two's ride / somebody else's bat.*

A much better form criterion is the plural suffix^{*)}; with its help we can distinguish between (1) nouns and (2) adjectives used substantively: *the natives / the good*. The difference in function and content between these two linguistic denominations is occasionally slight: *the Saxons were heathens / Arthur has his name because he killed the heathen; the heathen who killed him have no names at all*. But though substantives and adjectives may approach one another in content, a difference can in general be perceived; there is more stress on the descriptive element and less on the classifying element in the adjective than there is in the noun: *old people are usually conservative / all my brothers are Conservatives / the U.S. census originally classified as illiterate those adults who could not read . . . Beginning with the 1940 census, however, illiterates were defined as persons 25 years of age or over who had not completed one year of school*.—If we take plural *-s* as our criterion we can similarly identify *white* in *the white of an egg* as a noun, and not an adjective used substantively, since it has *-s* in the plural, e.g. *the whites of three eggs*. But that *-s* to denote the plural cannot be used

^{*)} This suffix is so distinctive that it will in itself cause words and phrases not otherwise substantives to be classed as such: *winners and also-rans / the haves and the have-nots*.

as the sole criterion appears from the fact that certain nouns, such as *silver*, *courage*, never have this suffix.

2.1.3 If we try to delimit nouns according to function, that is, combination possibilities, certain features appear. The definite article obviously will not serve, since it is normally also attached to adjectives when these are used substantively: *the good*; the indefinite article, on the other hand, is almost solely found with nouns,[†] although there are still a few relics of the type *a deceased*. A clear distinction from adjectives can be found in the fact that nouns are found without a determinative as subject or object: *gold is more valuable than silver / I hate dogs*; according to this criterion *good* in *do good* is a noun, and so is *dead* in *German dead*, *so obvious at every yard of a 1916 battlefield*, *were hardly to be seen*, while we have adjectives in *do your utmost / do the impossible*, since *utmost* and *impossible* require a determinative. This criterion however provides no distinction between nouns and pronouns; cf. *I have got some*.

2.1.4 If we make the content a criterion, other difficulties again appear; here the chief distinction between nouns and adjectives is of course that the former have an association of substance: *brick*, *book*, *child*, while the latter have an association of quality: *good*, *firm*, *wet*. But this excludes many nouns, such as *sweetness*, *fertility*. If a description is to be given of the content of nouns we may perhaps say that a member of the main group of these words denotes 'an object, or objects' + a descriptive element: *man*, *brick*, *water*. But we then have on the one hand the fact that some nouns contain no concept of an 'object', namely those denoting abstractions: *sweetness*, *folly*, *arrival*; and on the other we have nouns with very slight descriptive content, e.g. *fact*, *thing*, which therefore approach pronouns in content. These must however be classified as nouns on grounds of inflection and/or function.—In other words, all three criteria must be taken into consideration.

2.1.5 The commonest functions of nouns are of course to act as subject, object, predicative complement, and the complement of prepositions. Other uses deserving particular mention are:

- (1) Nouns can be attributive, i.e. fill a position in which the

[†] so that the addition of the indefinite article to words and phrases not otherwise substantives causes them to be classed as such: *Whitaker is a must for everyone today / Johnny took first . . . place; God was just an Aliso Ran*.

adjective is very often found; but there is generally a difference in stress on the elements of these two types of combination; compare *a town house*, with a primary stress on *town* and secondary stress on *house* with *an old house*, in which both *old* and *house* have a primary stress. If we take stress as a criterion, we note a transition to a full adjective in cases such as: *choice fruit*, *the chief news*, *head waiter*, etc.—In further illustration of the difference between substantival and adjectival elements used attributively we may consider some cases where they have the same written form: a 'French *master* (= a teacher of French, *French* being a noun) as against a 'French *master* / *a certain proportion of the dogs sent to the headquarters of the Guide Dogs for the Blind Association have to be rejected*; cf. a 'blind *child*.—In a 'woollen *stocking* the stress shows that *woollen* is the adjective; in *the 'woollen manufacturers* and *the 'woollen industry* the stresses (as well as the content) show that *woollen* is the noun used attributively (i.e. the noun *woollens* with the loss of -s, as in so many similar cases, e.g. *billiard table*).—Like attributive adjectives, nouns used attributively may also be post-positive, e.g. *more authority than any lords, hereditary or life, can exercise / schools, both voluntary and state*. Cf. 3.1.4.

(2) Nouns—particularly with qualifying words attached—may be used adverbially: *he is miles better than his brother / they rode single file / it's not much good my spending half an hour writing to your uncle if he changes his mind the next letter he gets from you*.—In many of these cases it is clear that the adverbial function has arisen from the omission of a preposition. In those cases where there is a similarity in content between nouns used adverbially and prepositional phrases with *for*, e.g. *he walked (for) three miles*, a difference in value may be noted; the expression with *for* has the association 'part of a greater whole', e.g. *he walked for three miles, then took a bus for the rest of the trip*.

2.1.6 Nouns can be classified in groups according to content: designations of the abstract and the concrete, the animate and the inanimate, and so on. From a grammatical point of view, the following groups are the most important:

(1) Proper names denote 'objects' (persons or localities) without describing them: *Ann, Peter; York, Germany*. If the 'objects' in question are sufficiently well known to possess certain qualities they

may become common nouns: *Michael Angelos are rare / the Shakespeare of this century / what a babel.*

(2) Appellatives, or common nouns, are nouns having a descriptive element. These may be sub-divided into: (a) countables, i.e. nouns denoting countable phenomena, e.g. *boy, tree, idea*; (b) uncountables, i.e. nouns denoting non-countable phenomena, e.g. *milk, gold, courage*; (c) collectives, e.g. *police, family*.—(For further classification according to function and content, see 2.3.1 ff.)

A noun does not necessarily belong to only one of these groups. Thus words such as *wood, lamb, paper* are found for both countable and non-countable concepts: *a wood of beech-trees / a chair made of wood*; and in *China, the China of Mr Waley's poets and professor Giles's biographies, is the eighteenth century*, *China* is used first as a proper noun, and then as an appellative.

2.1.7 Normally, only one suffix is possible for a noun: -s, which has the two functions of indicating the plural and the genitive. Owing to the very wide difference between these two functions, the identity of sound rarely gives rise to confusion. Approximation may occur however, as in *a six-days(') race*, where the noun + s-suffix may be regarded either as the plural form used attributively or as the genitive, and in such cases there is much variation as to the use of the apostrophe: *this meant setting up a schools' department / the major companies have now set up their own schools departments* (in one and the same article in *Manch. Guardian Weekly* Dec. 20, 1962).—Thus also in cases such as *Waldorf Club Notepaper and Envelopes can be obtained from all good stationers and stores*, where the approximation to an elliptical genitive is obvious. A certain approximation of the two functions may furthermore be said to exist in the cases where a plural noun is the subject of the verbal content of a gerund form: *the idea of boys(') marrying elderly ladies!* See 1.6.5.

The Plural Form of Nouns

2.2.1 Normally *-(e)s* is added: *backs* /bæks/, *hills* /hilz/, *boxes* /bɒksɪz/, *horses* /hɔ:sɪz/.

The suffix is pronounced /ɪz/ after words ending in a sibilant, otherwise /s/ after an unvoiced sound, /z/ after a voiced sound.

Orthography: the suffix is normally written *-s*; but *-es* after words ending in a sibilant which are not spelt with a final *-e*.

's is usually written after signs (i.e. letters, figures, and words considered as symbols): *dot your i's and cross your t's / 9's / M.P.'s / the 80's / there are too many and's in the sentence.*—The distinction between signs and words used to convey ideas thus determines the appearance of the plural in cases such as *your why's are illegible* and *some of his whys are hard to answer*. Further examples of this are: *the I's and my's and me's in his speech pass beyond the bounds of good taste / I wonder whether the ayes or the noes have it / what are the pros and cons?*

x instead of *-ck* + pl. *-s* is found in *smallpox*, *chicken-pox*; but *pox* has now lost its plural association and is used as an uncountable (of the disease): *smallpox was confused with the great pox (syphilis)*; *pock* (of the rash), the corresponding word with a countable value, is regularly spelt in the plural: *the pocks are sometimes superficial.*—A parallel to the spelling *pox* is *sox* for *socks*, to be encountered in the 'technical' English of the trade.

2.2.2 Doubling of the final consonant, which is a common feature in the inflection of verbs, is found in *fezzes* and *quizzes*, but is otherwise almost unknown in the case of nouns: *omnibuses*, *canvases*, *pluses*, *gases*, *buses* (only the last word is occasionally written with *-ss* -: *busses*).

Words ending in *-y* keep this after a vowel, but change it to *ie* after a consonant: *boys*, *enemies*; note that *-qu-* is reckoned as a consonant group: *soliloquies*.—Quotation words and proper names commonly keep *-y* even when preceded by a consonant: *whys* and *wherefores* / *Julys* / *Henrys*; in certain cases however the change is made: *the two Sicilies* / *the Ptolemies*.

Nouns ending in *-o* have sometimes *-oes*, sometimes *-os* in the plural: *buffaloes*, *echoes*, *dominoes*, *goes*, *jingoos*, *noes*, *volcanoes* / *cantos*, *quartos*, *solos*, *zeros*. Certain spelling rules can be given. If *-o* follows a vowel, only *-s* is added in the plural: *cameos*, *embryos*, *folios*, *studios*; abbreviations ending in *-o* have only *-s*: *photos*, *pianos*; proper names

ending in *-o* have only *-s*: *Ariostos*, *Michael Angelos*, *Neros*.—Many words vary as to spelling: *flamingo(e)s*, *fresco(e)s*, *grotto(e)s*, *memento(e)s*, *mosquito(e)s*, *proviso(e)s*.—The two spellings are rarely used to distinguish between different meanings; but we find it in a single case: *bravoes* (= bandits) / *bravos* (= applause).

Sound Changes in the Plural

2.2.3 As a rule there is no difference in stress between the singular and plural forms of a noun. It may be noted however that the plural of *'content* may be either *con'tents* or *'contents*. Furthermore the word *prin'cess* when preceding a name has the stress on the first syllable: *the 'Princess Charlotte*. In the plural the usual stress is kept in this position: *the Prin'cesses Elizabeth and Mary*.

2.2.4 The singular with a final unvoiced fricative, the plural with a corresponding voiced fricative:

(1) Change from singular */-f/* to plural */-v-/*: *calf*, plur. *calves*; so also: *elf*, *half*, *knife*, *leaf*, *life*, *loaf*, *self*, *sheaf*, *shelf*, *thief*, *wife*, *wolf*. The great majority of words ending in */-f/* do not have this irregularity, e.g. *chiefs*, *dwarfs*, *sniffs*.—Doublets are found in a number of cases: *beefs* (i.e. kinds of beef), *beeves* (i.e. carcasses of oxen): *Argentine beeves swamp the British market*; *hoofs*, more rarely *hooves*; *handkerchief* is spelt regularly in the plural; it is however not infrequently pronounced */-vz/*; *life* has a regular plural in the compound *still-life*: *still-lives*; *roof* commonly has *roofs* as its plural, rarely *rooves*; the plural of *scarf* is more frequently *scarves* than *scarfs* (but the reverse in the U.S.A.); *staff* in the sense 'group of persons working together' has only the regular plural, but in the sense 'stick, rod' it has both forms: *bishops' staves*; *flagstuffs*, *distuffs*; the plural of *wharf* is more often *wharves* than *wharfs*.

(2) Nouns ending in */-θ/* with a preceding long vowel or diphthong generally change to */-ðz/* in the plural, thus *baths*, *mouaths*, *oaths*, *paths*, *youths*. A few words of this type however such as *sheath*, *swath*, *truth*, *wreath* have the regular plural as well.—Words with a short vowel have only the regular plural: *death*, *moth*, *smith*; this applies also to words having a consonant preceding *-th*: *bealth*, *sixth*, to words ending in *-rth*: *birth*, *hearth*, and to a few words with a long vowel, which owing to their meaning are rarely

found in the plural: *faith*, *beath*.—*Cloth* is a special case, with its plural *clothes* /klouðz/ (= 'garments'), and *cloths* 1) /klɔθs/, 2) /klɔ:ðz/, often used with different values: 1) = 'kinds of cloth': *many of the finishing processes are applicable to a wide range of cloths*; 2) = 'pieces of material', e.g. *dish-cloths*, *table cloths*.

(3) A solitary word changes from /-s/ to /-z-/, namely *house* /haus/, pl. *houses* /hauziz/.

2.2.5 Unvoiced plural /-s/, written *-ce*, after a voiced sound is found in two cases: (1) *dice*: *dice are thrown from a dice-box*; here, as so often, the plural form has become the designation of the game (cf. *billiards*, *draughts*): *play at dice*; the singular form *a die* is little used, being replaced by e.g. *one of the dice*; the singular is however preserved in two metaphorically used expressions: *the die is cast / straight as a die*. (Note that the word *die* = 'coining stamp', etc. has the regular plural *dies*); (2) the plural of *penny* (and *halfpenny*) is (*half*)*pence* when speaking of sums of money: *he paid fourpence*, and in the sense 'small change': *take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves / children whine for halfpence*; but the regular plural is used when speaking of the individual halfpenny and penny coins: *I hadn't got two pennies to rub together / St George who slew the dragon on the halfpennies*.

2.2.6 Plural with vowel change: *foot*, pl. *feet*; *goose*, pl. *geese*; *louse*, pl. *lice*; *man*, pl. *men*; *mouse*, pl. *mice*; *tooth*, pl. *teeth*; *woman* /wumən/, pl. *women* /wimin/.—*Dormouse* and *titmouse* change like *mouse*; compounds such as *alderman*, *footman*, *gentleman*, *Norseman*, *Northman*, etc. change like *man*, but as a rule the difference between the singular and plural is purely orthographical. Note that certain words ending in *-man* are not (or are not regarded as) compounds of *man*; these have regular plurals: *Mussulmans*, *Normans*. The word *dragoman* has both plurals: *dragomans*, *dragomen*.

Other Irregular Plurals

2.2.7 *Ox*, pl. *oxen*; *child*, pl. *children*; *brother* has the irregular pl. *brethren* in addition to the regular form; this biblical plural (e.g. *Joseph dreamed a dream, and he told it his brethren*) is now used when speaking on a religious note of the members of a community:

There is no moral justification for a general strike of this character. It is, therefore, a sin against the charity and brotherly love which are due to our brethren / the brethren will meet at church; but in the strict sense of the word, and in the sense 'fellow-men', the word is regular: Brothers! Fellow-workers! / a war is always a war between brothers.

2.2.8 Unchanged in the plural are: *bedouin, bob* (slang = shilling), *counsel* (= barrister), *(air)craft, deer, offspring, sheep, yen*.—For *grouse, salmon, trout*, etc. see **2.3.2(5)**.

While the genitive ending is often dropped for reasons of euphony (see **2.5.1** and **2.5.3**) a corresponding omission of the plural ending is less frequent; it is found however as an 'educated' plural form of family names ending in *-s*: *The Hastings were Tories*; but the common form is *the Perkinses, the Joneses*.

In the case of some words, where a plural has come to denote the singular, no further suffix is added in the plural: *a short innings / two innings*; thus also: *bellows* (see **2.3.3**), *daddy-long-legs, gallows, head-quarters, lazy-bones, means: a sure means / these means*; (*means* is also found as an uncountable: *we have little means of knowing what was the syntax of the spoken language in Early English*; this is particularly frequent in the sense 'economic resources', and the verb attached is then in the plural: *his means are much reduced*); *mews, saw-bones, shambles, (gas/iron/steel, etc.)works*, etc. Examples of other words of the type: *the lay-out of a barracks is so specialised / in the end they found a baths belonging to a borough, and there he met and conquered his adversaries / a remote cross roads / a natural zoological gardens / the 'heads' of pointlessness has as its 'tails' idolatrous nationalism and communism / George had tried them both at a petty sessions / an Augean stables of metallic filth*.—For the number of the verb with this type of noun see **1.4.4**.

Note that *sixpence*, which has likewise been transferred to the singular: *a sixpence*, forms the plural with a suffix: *two sixpences*.

Certain words of French origin which have a mute *-s* in the singular have no change in spelling in the plural, but are regular in sound: *corps* /kɔː/, pl. *corps* /kɔːz/; thus also *chamois, patois*. Unchanged in spelling in the plural, but regular in sound is also *pince-nez*.

2.2.9 Foreign plurals:

Sing. *-a*, pl. *-ae*: *larva* /la:və/, pl. *larvae* /la:vi:/; *alumna, nebula*.

Sing. -es, pl. -es: *series* /siəri:z/, pl. *series* /siəri:z/; *species*.

Sing. -is, pl. -es: *analysis* /ə'næləsis/, pl. *analyses* /ə'næləsi:z/; *axis*, *basis*,*) *crisis*, *diagnosis*, *hypothesis*, *neurosis*, *oasis*.

Sing. -on, pl. -a: *phenomenon* /fi'n minən/, pl. *phenomena* /fi'nominə/.

Sing. -um, pl. -a: *desideratum* /dizidə'reitəm/, pl. *desiderata* /dizidə'reitə/; *erratum*, *ovum*.

Sing. -us, pl. -i: *bacillus* /bə'siləs/, pl. *bacilli* /bə'silai/, *magus* /meigəs/, pl. *magi* /meidzai/; *alumnus*, *radius*, *stimulus*.

Many foreign words also have a regular English plural in addition to the foreign form: *seraph*, pl. *seraphim*, *seraphs*; *adieu*, pl. *adieux*, *adieux*; *beau*, pl. *beaux*, *beaus*; *formula*, pl. *formulae*, *formulas*; *appendix*, pl. *appendices*, *appendixes*; *criterion*, pl. *criteria*, *criteria*; *lira*, pl. *lire*, *liras*; *curriculum*, pl. *curricula*, *curriculum*; *memorandum*, pl. *memoranda*, *memorandums*; *millennium*, pl. *millennia*, *millenniums*; *spectrum*, pl. *spectra*, *spectrums*; *stratum*, pl. *strata*, *stratums*; *cactus*, pl. *cacti*, *cactuses*; *fungus*, pl. *fungi* /fʌŋgai, fʌndzai/, *funguses*; *focus*, pl. *foci* /fousai/, *foci*; *hippopotamus*, pl. *hippopotami*, *hippopotamuses* (see also 2.3.2(5)); *papyrus*, pl. *papyri*, *papyrus*; *terminus*, pl. *termini*, *terminuses*.—As a rule, the difference is not one of sense, but of style; the foreign plural is the more technical or literary of the two, the English the more colloquial. The following quotation from Aldous Huxley: *The Genius and the Goddess may serve to illustrate this; the difference between the types of language used by an adolescent girl and by the narrator himself is here expressed: She began. 'It's about a brother and a sister called Usber, and they lived in a kind of castle with a black and livid tarn in front of it, and there are funguses on the walls, . . . ' And so the narrative proceeded . . . And now we were on the road moving towards the dark wall of woodland. Meanwhile . . . young Mr Usber was roaming about among the tapestries and the fungi in a state of incipient lunacy.*

A difference in meaning between the two plural forms is found in a few words, such as *cherub*, the plural of which, when used in the strict sense, is *cherubim*, while in the sense 'a beautiful winged child' or 'a child with fat, rosy cheeks' the plural is *cherubs*; the plural of *genius*, meaning '(guardian) spirit' is *genii*; in the sense 'a person of intellectual or artistic brilliance' the plural is *geniuses*; *index* in the sense '(power) exponent' has the plural *indices*, in the sense 'list, register' the plural *indexes*.

Note that *virus* has only the plural *viruses*.

*) Note the different pronunciation of *bases* as the plural of this word, which is /beisi:z/ and that of the plural of *base*, which is /beisiz/.

2.2.10 The plural form of compounds:

If the final element of a compound is a noun, this is put in the plural: *toothpicks, horsemen, woman-baters, washer-women*. If the first element is in the genitive, the use and position of the apostrophe vary greatly: *bridesmaids* / sing. *bird's-nest*, pl. *birds' nests, bird's-nests* / *the crow's-feet about his eyes*.—Even where the final element is not a noun, we find the plural indicator added in such compounds as *bucketfuls, breakdowns, stowaways, four-per-cents*.

The plural of the first element of the compound is normally found when the compound consists of (1) noun + prepositional phrase: *men-of-war, mothers-in-law, commanders-in-chief, Justices of the Peace, aides-de-camp*; (2) noun + adverb: *lookers-on, passers-by, goings-on*; (3) noun + adjective: *postmasters-general, poets-laureate*.

There is considerable vacillation however: *will-o'-the-wisps; courts-martial*, as well as (less often) *court-martials; attorneys-general*, but often *attorney-generals; knights errant, knight-errants*.

Both elements are normally in the plural where the first is *man, woman, (gentleman, yeoman)*, when these elements denote the sex (or situation) of the compound: *men-servants, women-students, gentlemen boarders, yeomen farmers* (compare: *man-eaters, manholes, woman-baters*); apart from this, only in a very few cases: *Knights Templars, Lords Justices, Lords Lieutenants, Lords Chancellors*.

The combination title + name is to be found in the plural with the suffix attached either to the first or the last element: *the two Miss Smiths* / (formally) *the two Misses Smith; the two Master Smiths* / (formally) *the two Masters Smith*; the plural of *Mr* is *Messrs*; corresponding to the above we thus find: *the two Mr Smiths / the two Messrs Smith*.—*Mrs* has no plural form, and the plural of this + name has only one expression: *the two Mrs Smiths*.

When the plural concept is attached solely to the title, only the latter of the above-mentioned forms of expression is of course found: *the Misses Mary and Ann Smith / Messrs Smith and Brown*.

The Use of the Singular and Plural of Nouns

2.3.1 As stated in **2.1.6**, nouns can be classified in certain main groups: (1) Proper names (such as *James, Africa*), which—apart from special cases such as *the Hague, the Hebrides*—resemble uncountables in function in having no plural and appearing in the singular without a determinative, and in content resemble countables in that they connote formed differentiated wholes. (2) Countables, i.e. appellatives with a countable content, found in the plural as well as the singular, the singular requiring a determinative: *a book, the book*, etc. (3) Uncountables, i.e. appellatives with a non-countable content, appearing in the singular without a qualifying word: *tea is a stimulant*, and connoting something formless. (4) Collectives, whose singular may connote either a singular or a plural concept: *my family is old / my family are early risers*.

But the picture presented by number in nouns is more complicated than suggested by the above. A noun often belongs to more than one of the groups mentioned, and the formal and functional features listed are not always present.

Though uncountables are normally in the singular, some of these (nearly) always appear in the plural: *oats, riches*. Many uncountables cannot (or can hardly ever) be used of a countable concept: (*good*) *fortune, furniture, milk*, and require the addition of a countable if they are to be used as such: *a spell of work / a stroke of good fortune / a piece of furniture / a set of furniture*.—Others can also be used as countables, sometimes of a number of individual phenomena whose single units are seen as identical: *three hairs*, sometimes of diversity of kind: *other wheats arose by mutation*, sometimes both these values: *we want two teas / green teas include Pearl, Hyson, etc.*—The countable value often differs widely from the non-countable: *a fortune / a work of art*.

Most collectives may also be countables: (coll.) *the Polish Government has had to introduce all sorts of restrictions / The Czecho-Slovak Government are doing all within reason to promote a lasting agreement* // (count.) *a new Catalan Government has been formed / if the world community ever gets to the point of developing fully its own government, that government probably will be superior to the governments of nations*.—But some do not have this potentiality, e.g. *police*.

The most important aspects of number in nouns will be discussed below.

2.3.2 Nouns with a normally countable association have, in addition to their more obvious associations of number: (a) one or more specimens (*belief in an intimate connection between a human being and a tree / Plutarch thought trees had perceptions*) or (b) one or more kinds (*Black willow. This tree reaches a height of 120 feet / deciduous trees such as elm, apple, etc.*)—the following usages, which should be noted:

(1) The singular form can be constructed like uncountables (viz. without a determinative). Thus a plural reality is connoted, but the idea of the actual individual phenomena has receded into the background, and the specific character of the phenomena in question is emphasized (cf. similarly **2.3.4** (third and fourth sections)): *we believe in democratic reform / a heavy loss of life / Ever since the establishment of a standard language there has been a tendency for words from regional dialect to be introduced / a rabid anti-Semite is impervious to rational argument / Sunday was a day crowded with incident / discuss in some detail the historical significance of nationalism / yellow coltsfoot is in flower on the poor ground.*

Thus frequently used of 'substances in the mass': *fish is cheap / a little more lamb / the new types of jam have been tried, but the public is conservative in its taste. Its first choice remains strawberry / a wall made of stone / HOVIS, the builder of vitality, bone and muscle.*

This use of the singular is frequently found after *kind of*, etc.: *What kinds of cherry flourish best in this region? / that is the sort of horse I prefer / He was the type of man who thought best, when he was moving fastest / let us study the type of word borrowed.*

(2) Representative singular: definite article + singular of a noun with a countable concept can connote the whole of the kind or class in question: *the teeth of the wolf are identical with those of the dog / the pen is mightier than the sword / the hero of the book is not a single character, but the Finnish soldier.*—The corresponding use of *man* and *woman* does not have the article: *in most respects the dog's senses are considerably keener than man's / woman is always for primitive peoples bedged round with sanctity, whilst man does all he can to keep religion largely in his own hands.*

(3) A number of nouns (with both countable and non-countable content) are found in the plural with a non-countable content with

an 'intensified' concept: *she felt grave fears for him / they stroll through fields and woods / he has a foreground of the whole dome of the heavens to contemplate / children playing on the sands / the waters of the lake / he is under orders to start tomorrow // the botanical gardens / the park and grounds of the mansion.*

(4) In the case of a number of nouns with a countable content, the above-mentioned use of the plural form with a non-countable content produces a meaning differing widely from the countable value: *use your brains / get one's colours / join the colours / get one's luggage through the customs / a man of letters / take up your quarters with me / in high spirits.*

(5) In some cases countables are, in addition to their normal use, found with collective value (i.e. singular form with plural content); thus some old-fashioned military terms: *a regiment of foot / the archers were driven off by a charge of Scottish horse / a fleet of 40 sail.*—Thus also *cannon*: *we paid in blood for the lack of cannon.* (N.B. In its ordinary countable sense the plural of the word fluctuates between forms with and without -s: *two cannon(s)*; this usage has now generally been replaced by *guns*.)

An extensive group of words in which number is used in this way consists of animal names, such as *cod, fish, grouse, hippopotamus, mackerel, snipe*, etc., i.e. names of animals commonly found in flocks. The treatment is however very arbitrary: *catch soles and plaice / shoot duck and geese / the blue curves . . . carried whales, albatross, penguins, and walrus / they say fish are good for the brain / We caught a lot of fish // Round the boat fishes were suddenly jumping / a shoal of young fishes dumbly mouthing at the surface of the water.* (N.B. Always *fishes* in the sense 'breeds of fish': *many fishes have a varying number of tubelike sacs of uncertain function*.)—Certain animal names are never found in the plural: *cod, deer, grouse, hake, roe, salmon, sheep, snipe, trout*, and others.—Many vary as to form: *antelope(s), buffalo(es), giraffe(s), herring(s), hippopotamus(es)* (and *hippopotami*), *partridge(s), rhinoceros(es)*, etc. The collective use of the singular of these is found particularly in shooting jargon, compare *shoot duck* and *raise ducks / shoot waterfowl* and *keep fowls*.

The same use of number is to some extent found in the names of plants: *it was the moment between six and seven when every flower—roses, carnations, irises, lilac—glows / pale oats, very short and scattered with charlock and poppies.*

2.3.3 A special use of number is to be seen in such a word as *trousers*; the form is always plural; the conception of a specific number is attached to the added word *pair*. Other words of this type are: *bellows, drawers, pincers, scales, scissors, shears, spectacles, tongs, tweezers, whiskers*, etc.: *a pair of fieldglasses / the shock made it necessary that she should constantly wear glasses / two pairs of scissors / a pair of tusks incurved like open tweezers*.—A few of these nouns are also found with the plural used as singular: *a bellows / a man produced a scissors and stabbed him repeatedly*.

2.3.4 Nouns mainly used as uncountables:

When a concept of countability as to quantity is to be attached to these, it is often done by linking them with certain countables: *a fair amount of justice / a fit of shivering / a flutter of strange excitement / a piece of bad memory / a pang of jealousy / an act of kindness / a piece of furniture / a set of furniture*.

Countability as to kind can be given to many of these nouns by adding the indefinite article: *a knowledge of infection and a knowledge of the function of the brain which would make it possible to localize a disease within the skull . . . were added in the 19th century / I take notes in a shorthand which is my own invention / she was sentenced to a strict seclusion*.

Most frequently however the plural is also found with this value of countability: *men drank cider of various strengths / the device enabled the job to continue in all weathers / French wines*.

When nouns that are usually uncountables are treated as countables, their content becomes less abstract: *it would not be doing a kindness to him / his follies / he has done me two or three personal kindnesses / the two girls were exchanging confidences*.

The difference in content between the uncountable and countable forms of a noun may be considerable: *filings, sweepings, writings* denote the 'products' of the actions expressed by the singular form (the plural form does not necessarily have a countable content, but is always more concrete than the singular: *In these (periodicals) he published much of his late writings*).

Other words of which the non-countable and the countable values differ considerably are: *advice* (= 'counsel'): *much advice / a piece (bit, word) of advice //* (= 'reports') *according to last advices . . . ;—business: business is slack / a stroke of business // he hasn't a business of his own / Salisbury is growing . . . Its businesses are flourishing . . . ;—content, sing. 1) (= 'volume'): what is the content of this bottle?*

2) (= 'body of ideas'): *Negative pacifism and scepticism about existing institutions are just holes in the mind, emptiness waiting to be filled. Fascism or communism have sufficient positive content to act as fillers / the ease that comes with complete mastery of form and content is not yet apparent*; 3) (= 'proportion'): *the President's power to change the dollar's gold content / the Chianti had an alcohol content of more than fourteen per cent // pl.: table of contents / Anthony took out his pocket-book and quickly examined its contents*;—evidence (= 'material supporting a theory', 'testimony of witnesses'): *there was not enough evidence to prove him guilty of the crime // (= 'traces'): Old Chawdron was very careful to destroy all the evidences of the crime*;—information: *That was the information I read on the notice board / that is a useful piece of information // the magistrate decides whether to issue a summons or a warrant, or neither, after hearing in private a brief statement of the alleged offence, termed an information, by the person who seeks to prosecute*;—manner (= 'way(s) of acting', 'attitude'): *I don't like his manner // (= 'deportment', 'social behaviour'): it is bad manners to stare at people*;—money: *make much money // (in legal and economic technical language = 'sums of money', 'kinds of money'): the coast nowadays subsists chiefly on fishing, trading in camels, and oil prospecting moneys / Some Foreign and Colonial Moneys with Equivalents*;—nerve: *a man of nerve // he has nerves of iron*;—progress: *progress was slow // Queen Elisabeth's progresses*.

A number of nouns with a non-countable content are found (almost) solely in the plural: the verb attached and the number of substituted or attached pronouns are sometimes singular, sometimes plural: *alms: alms were distributed at the doors of churches*;—*arms: small arms are those weapons which a soldier can carry about with him (the corresponding sing. arm has a countable value = 'type of weapon' and 'branch of armed services': small nuclear arm or big 'clean' bomb? / alliance is an arm, like a battleship, or a submarine. Are we to leave this arm entirely in the hands of prospective rivals? / the air arm; the cavalry arm)*;—*ashes: the ashes are still hot (but sing. ash is countable = 'ash stub' and 'kind of ash': I retain the ash on my cigar / bone-ash; volcanic ash)*;—*goods: our goods have been stolen*;—*news: the letter that brought that news to England / no news is good news / a piece of good news / the following items of news . . .*;—*oats: wild oats were first found growing in Western Europe (sing. is used of the species: the red oat)*;—*odds: the odds are in our favour! (but with the verb in the sing. in the expression: what's the odds?*

= what does it matter?);—*pains* (= 'care'): *much pains* has (*great pains have*) *been taken*; (in addition sing. *pain* and corresponding plur. = 'physical discomfort' are found 1) with non-countable value: *he did not feel much pain / a sharp twinge of pain*; and 2) with countable value (of the kind): *a strange sharp pain in his heart / he felt a dull pain in his ankle / inside his breast was a pain like a wound // '... feeling pains in the knee he hasn't got' ... 'Not pains,' he said coldly, though it was as pains he had described them only half an hour before*);—*proceeds*: *what do the proceeds amount to?*;—*riches*: *we had been told from childhood that riches take to themselves wings and fly*;—*thanks*: *very many thanks / a word of thanks*;—*tidings*: *sad tidings have come*;—*wages*: *his wages are more than five pounds a week* (also sing. *wage* with a countable value used of the level: *a minimum wage, a living wage, an adequate wage*);—*wares*: *what wares were exhibited?*

To this type belong also (1) various names of games: *billiards, bowls, dice, draughts, etc.*: *bowls fills a vacancy in U.S. sports. It can be played by persons of middle age or past / checkers was played in the days of the earlier Pharaohs*; (2) various names of diseases: *measles, mumps, rickets, etc.*: *commonly measles occurs in children*; (3) a number of words in *-ics*: *gymnastics, mathematics, politics, tactics, etc.*: *it was fashionable to count up the waste of public money shell by shell, the rumoured cost of these shells being half a guinea each. Sometimes this cynical mathematics was brought to an end as the air round us began to buzz and drone with falling fragments / politics is full of changes / politics are dull* (the corresponding countable value is expressed by *policy*).

2.3.5 Nouns with collective value:

(1) The ambiguity as to number, which in collectives (2.3.1, para. 4) is found attached to the singular, may be attached to the plural in cases such as *a mere six hours / another forty yards*, where the plurality of the individual components is expressed by the plural form of the noun, and the concept of a whole by the singular of the verb, pronoun or determinative: *the revolutionary thirties with its cliques and its minatory 'unacknowledged legislators' / I should like them to be together every holidays / each busy twenty-four hours / It was a crowded three days / a further six acres / Canada is closely neighboured by a friendly United States / a strong United Nations offers the only hope*.—A collective value of this kind is not by any means always attached however even though it might seem

obvious: *But if B. wanted a hundred pounds at any moment, he could have them.* (For the number of the verb in such cases see 1.4.3; 1.4.5; 1.4.8(3).)

(2) Some names of animals are used only collectively, and another word has to be used of the individual animal: *cattle* (sing. *cow*, *calf*, etc.); *poultry* (sing. *hen*, *duck*, *turkey*, etc.); *swine* (sing. *pig*, *hog*) (as a term of abuse however *swine* is a countable with plural unchanged: *the dirty swine!* is thus used both of one and of more); *vermin* (sing. *flea*, *louse*, *rat*, etc.).

A corresponding use of number is found in denotations of persons: *clergy*, *folk*, *gentry*, *people*, *police*, *public* (sing. *clergyman*, *police-man*, etc.): *the parochial clergy were to some extent recruited from the Universities / some folk are never satisfied* (this word is colloquial for *people*; it is also found with the plural suffix, meaning *relatives*, likewise colloquial: *the old folks*, *my folks*) / *these gentry never liked travelling at less than 70 m.p.h.* (used ironically this noun is only treated as a plural; used seriously it is treated as a collective noun, taking a singular or plural verb: *the gentry is/are . . .*) / *many people don't like him* (this word can also as a collective denote a nation, with the verb in the plural or the singular according to whether it is regarded as the individuals or the whole; with the latter value the word may also have the regular plural form: *the German people were not allowed to know of President Roosevelt's message / the British people is ready to give an immediate answer / the Allies were discharging their obligations to peoples whom they had encouraged to rebel*) / *the police all over the country have been very active / the public is fearful of the cost of litigation / the public now know the main story.*

2.3.6 The number of the noun is influenced by certain syntactic circumstances; thus in attributive usage the noun is commonly in the singular: *the eight-hour day / the Five-Year Plan / a five-pound note / a four-foot fence / a five-day week in industry / 10,000-ton cruisers / the white-slave traffic / road hog / book club / billiard table / custom-house / trouser-button.*—In some cases the form varies, e.g. *a wage(s) agreement / trouser pocket*, less frequently *trousers pocket*; and often only the plural form is found: *contents bills shouting 'Sensation!'* / *the roads programme / for the past eight years A.P. has contributed the Books article to the pages of 'Britannia and Eve' / few opportunities to stop a stand-up fight on the Commons floor / clothes brush / customs officer / the Forces programme / a goods train.*—The approximation of this last type to the genitive (e.g. *the nationalised*

industries' investment programmes / an eight days' cruise / granting industrial workers a six days' holiday on full pay) is discussed in 2.1.7.

2.3.7 The words *manner*, *kind* and *sort* may be used with greatly reduced significance content: *there's no sort of use in knocking*; in formal English *manner* with this value has no plural suffix after *all*: *the letters of the alphabet have had to represent the sounds of all manner of other languages which have contributed to our vocabulary*;—in colloquial speech the same holds good of *kind* and *sort* after *these* and *those*: *that's the reason those sort of chaps make money / get something together along those sort of lines / these kind of people*; in educated English we find instead: *people of this kind / matters of this sort*, etc.—For the use of singular instead of plural of the noun following *kind of*, etc. (*this kind of boy*) see 2.3.2(1).

2.3.8 In combinations of two or more adjectives + a substantive an association of 'distributive plural' attached to the substantive will often cause it to be in the plural: *all the wassailing was merely to drown fears and anxieties at the coming and going of the old and new years / Herr Henlein's sixth and eighth points / the wholesale drapery and clothing trades / countless words were adopted in the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries*.—Similarly an association of 'distributive plural' is often attached to a substantive + *of* + two or more substantives: *in the reigns of Elizabeth and James / boys between the ages of 14 and 18*.

The singular is however sometimes used: *war between the German and French people / the adventurous spirit of the sixteenth and seventeenth century // Action in support of peace in the case of Spain, China, and Czecho-Slovakia*;—particularly 1) when the noun has a mainly non-countable association: *the nude in French and British art / the art of Shakespeare and Beethoven*; 2) when the plural could be wrongly taken to be attached to each of the elements: *differences between French and British policy on Spain / the elder and younger son*; 3) when each of the co-ordinate elements is stressed: *the late 19th and early 20th century / this, and the next chapter*.

The distributive plural is also found in cases such as: *they ought to be having their bottoms kicked and their noses tweaked / you should have seen us all shouting at the tops of our voices / it was in the natives'*

own interests / we greeted the rising sun with light hearts / the attempt to dominate Europe at the expense of the liberties of other nations / we could not separate them against their wills / It's for their sakes that . . . But the distributive concept may be kept in the background: *they were putting on the (note: not their) nosebag together at a table / the barbarians stood in the door of their tents / mankind may be divided roughly into two classes—those who, becoming aware of cracksmen in their wardrobe, fling open the door and confront them, and those who do not*; the singular is particularly common when the noun in question denotes something impalpable: *he did it for our sake / children have to be disciplined—in their own interest / 'At present we are fat from our sedentary life'.—'Our life'—as if they had only the one between them / his unpaid debts had mostly settled themselves by the death of his creditors*. But there may be considerable vacillation; compare the last example with: *the gale caused the deaths of seventeen people*, and the following example from a news item: *a man and his wife were charged with causing the deaths of two of their young children by neglect . . . They are charged with feloniously causing the death of their children R. and K. by wilful neglect*.

Reciprocity is expressed by the plural of the noun in expressions such as: *We shook hands / we changed seats / I changed hats with him // I had to change trains at Reading*.

2.3.9 Nouns denoting weight and measure are generally in the plural when it is a question of more than one*): *two pounds, feet, fathoms, miles, tons*, etc.—The singular is however used in the following cases:

Always in the singular are: *bob, brace, gross, head, hundredweight, stone, yoke*; e.g.: *immigrants were coming into the States at about a million head a year / his fourteen stone lurched into the dresser / three yoke of oxen*. (Note also that the terms of measurement *candle-power, horse-power, per cent* are not found in the plural.)

For the singular in attributive usage: *a five-pound note*, see **2.3.6**.

Terms of measurement when immediately followed by a term of smaller measurement are more frequently in the singular than the plural: *two pound(s) ten / five foot (feet) six*.

2.3.10 The numeral nouns *hundred, thousand, million; dozen, score*

*) This applies also to fractions above 1; cf. *0.9 bushel* and *1.1 bushels / one and a half hours* (beside *an hour and a half*).

Note the indeclinable multiplication term *times*: *one times one*.

have a regular plural form when they do not follow an indication of number: *there were thousands of people / scores of times*.

The singular is used after numerals: *he paid two hundred (pounds) / two dozen (pencils) / three score (of eggs)*; only *million* differs on one point: when immediately followed by a noun the singular is used, as with the others: *three million people*; but when the noun is understood the form varies: *the population rose to 4 million / what is a circulation of 117,000 compared with the 4½ millions of the Daily Mirror*; and if the noun understood is a monetary denomination, the plural is used: *the firm had to pay three millions*.

After non-exact indications of number such as *a couple, several*, etc. both forms are found: *many thousand people / many thousands of English and American readers*; other examples are: *several hundred pounds / he has played the part several hundreds of times / a few hundred people / the playhouse holds a few hundreds / Formosa^o could take up to a million refugees; in fact, she has taken only a few hundred / a few thousand of them / a temporary town housing a couple of thousand show people / a couple of dozen questions are already down on the Commons order-paper*.—*Some* is always followed by the plural: *This step would put some hundreds of thousands of Czechs under German rule / some thousands of years ago, some + singular* connoting an approximate singular value: *some score years ago*.

Gender

2.4.1 The question of gender (i.e. 'kind') has been touched upon earlier (2.1.6), in that we discussed certain classifications of the phenomena denoted by nouns; the most important classification was that of 'countables' as against 'uncountables'. The significance of this distinction in the matter of number has been mentioned many times in the preceding sections (2.3.1 ff.); we shall meet it again, *inter alia* in discussing the representative *one*, which can represent only the former type of noun (compare: *a slim volume . . . a fat one* with *white sugar and brown*).—Another grammatically important gender distinction is 'common gender' as against 'neuter' (*parent/tree*), which manifests itself *inter alia* in the use of the relative pronouns *who* and *which*; a classification into 'masculine', 'feminine', 'neuter' (*father/mother/house*), which appears in, for instance, the personal pronouns: *he, she, it*. In a number of cases (e.g. *ship/Britain/elephant/cat*) the distinctions between the various kinds are not clear-cut; for this, see the section on personal pronouns.

2.4.2 Nouns connoting masculine and feminine may either be separate and distinct words: *son/daughter // lord/lady // nephew/niece*; or the feminine form may be derived from the masculine: *hero/heroine* (the reverse is rare: *bridegroom/bride // widower/widow*).

2.4.3 The commonest feminine suffix is *-ess*: (*Lord*) *Mayor / (Lady) Mayoress*; *god/goddess*; *prince/princess*; *heir/heiress*, *millionaire/millionairess*, *shepherd/shepherdess*. In a number of cases the stem is abbreviated: *adventurer/adventuress*; *murderer/murderess*, *procure/procuress*; *songsongster/songsongstress*; *tiger/tigress*, *waiter/waitress*; *ambassador/ambadress*; *actress*, *proprietor/proprietress*; *launderer/laundress*; *emperor/empress*.—In many cases the sound of the stem is so altered that the feminine can hardly be described as a derivative of the masculine: *abbot/abbess*; *duke/duchess*; *marquis/marchioness*; *master/mistress*; *negro/negress*.

Feminine designations with other suffixes are few: *chauffeur/chauffeuse*; *czar/czarina*; *hero/heroine*; *aviator/aviatrix*; *executive, executrix*.

2.4.4 The masculine or feminine gender of a noun is furthermore often expressed by the addition of *male/female*; *he/she*, or certain

nouns connoting the masculine or feminine: *a choir of men and women students / her collection of paintings includes works by many well-known artists, men and women*. Often several of these means of expressing gender are used with the same noun: *female/she-/tabby cat*.

Examples of the masculine: *male cousin, friend, reader, nurse, choir, party; animal, bear, swan; flower, plant, tree / he-bear, -goat, -wolf / man doctor, friend / boy friend / gentleman friend / stag party / cock pigeon, robin, sparrow / buck rabbit / bull calf / dog-fox / tomcat / billy goat / jackass*.

Examples of the feminine: *female cousin, friend, missionary; company, labour, staff; animal, ass, rat; catkin, flower, plant / she-bear, -goat, -monkey / woman doctor, friend, voter / girl friend / lady clerk, friend, writer / hen party; bird, pigeon, sparrow / doe rabbit / cow-calf / beifer-calf / nannygoat*.

2.4.5 There are certain peculiar features in the use of the above-mentioned nouns connoting gender:

In addition to the masculine and feminine denotation there is in some cases a special common gender denotation: *father, mother; parent / boy, girl; child / cock, hen; fowl*, in other cases such a denotation is lacking: *master, mistress / brother, sister / actor, actress / widower, widow*; in others yet again only a common gender denotation is found: *cousin/teacher/writer*; and in order to express the masculine or feminine recourse must be had to the additions mentioned above (2.4.4).

The masculine form often has the additional function of common gender form: *fox* (m.), *vixen* (f.); *fox* (common) / *lion, lioness; lion / author, authoress; author*; the feminine used as common gender is found in the case of certain designations of animals where the female is dominant: *drake* (m.), *duck* (f.); *duck* (common) / *gander, goose; goose*.

2.4.6 *Man* is a special case as regards gender; the singular is used as the common gender form of the human being as a species: *man is mortal*; the plural as the common gender form of human beings in the sense 'mankind': *all men must die*; but apart from this *man* and *woman*, except for compounds, are respectively masculine and feminine, so that both words must be used to express common gender (unless replaced by *person, human*, or the like): *When a man or woman of ordinary appearance comes into our presence, we say*

'How do you do!' and turn away; but compounds with man or woman as the final element differ greatly as to gender; some compounds with -man can be common gender: She knew perfectly well how to handle a line. Her father had made a fisherman of her / her duties as chairman; others are masculine only, so that the corresponding form with -woman must be used where the feminine gender is in question: he sprang to his feet and ran like a madman / people would have taken her for a madwoman // he was the best horseman in his dominions / she is a clever horsewoman / visitors saw police without tunics . . . But what of policewomen? . . . one policewoman went on her hot patrol in full rig.

The Genitive

2.5.1 In the genitive singular 's is added to the noun; phonetically this ending is like the plural suffix: /-iz/ after a sibilant: *Halifax's* /hælifæksiz/ *speech* / James's /dʒeɪmziz/ *house* / a *witch's* /wɪtʃiz/ *broom* / *St George's* /dʒɔːdʒiz/ *Day*; otherwise /-s/ after unvoiced sounds: *this week's* /wiːks/ *mail*, and /-z/ after voiced sounds: *a dog's* /dɒgz/ *life*.

Genitive plural: in the case of nouns whose plurals are formed with the suffix -(e)s, there is no phonetic addition in the genitive plural; in writing the genitive is marked by the addition of an apostrophe: *ladies' clothes* / *two hours' work*. Other nouns form the genitive plural by adding the same suffix as in the genitive singular: *men's clothes* / *children's books*.

2.5.2 The identity of sound of the genitive singular, genitive plural and the regular plural suffix can, particularly in cases where the number is not obvious, give rise to vacillation in placing the apostrophe; this applies to (1) approximation of the plural and the representative singular: *The Sunday Companion made a popular offer to provide water from the River Jordan for the baptizing of its reader's children* / *a local moral breakdown may momentarily clear the attackers' path*; (2) the genitive as the first element of compounds: *mare's milk* or *mares' milk* / *a wasp's nest*, *a hornet's nest*; but, with attraction towards the indefinite article, also *a wasp's nest*, *a hornet's nest*; where the singular of the compound has 's, as in *a bird's nest*, there may be vacillation in the plural: *bird's nests* or *birds' nests*; (3) approximation of the plural of the noun used attributively and the genitive plural: *a twenty years' campaign* / *beeswax* or *bees'(-)wax*.

2.5.3 In certain cases the phonetic addition is omitted in the genitive singular for reasons of euphony; thus almost always in the case of names ending in -es pronounced /-i(:)z/: *Cervantes' works* / *Socrates' wife* / *Xerxes' fleet*. The genitive singular without a suffix of names ending in /-s/ and /-z/, formerly a common form, has been kept in a number of established expressions: *St Agnes' Eve* (cf. *St Agnes's bones are supposed to rest here*) / *St Giles' hospital* (cf. *St Giles's day*) / *Guy Fawkes' day* (cf. *Guy Fawkes's lantern is in the*

Bodleian library)—and is also found in general use in a formal or a mannered style (where the natural form of expression is the regular genitive): *Jesus' words and deeds // His Royal Highness'(s) plans / Pepys'(s) diary / the second volume of Smuts'(s) life.*

The genitive suffix is omitted after words in /-s/ or /-z/ in the phrase *for . . . sake*: *for conscience(') sake / for old acquaintance(') sake.*

The expression *Shanks's mare* may be mentioned as a curiosity. Here 's has been added to the regular plural of an appellative, under the impression that it is the gen. sing. of a proper name.

2.5.4 The genitive suffix is often added to a substantival phrase: *the Duke of York's eldest son / my brother-in-law's house / the Misses Pewsey's cottage / The Postmaster General's view / he took somebody else's bat / Charles the Second's reign / in a day or two's time.* In formal English the group genitive occurs mainly in established phrases such as the above; but in colloquial speech it is used much more freely: *one of the girls in my class's grandmother / the man we met yesterday's wife.*

Nouns linked by *and* more often than not have the group genitive where there is a connotation of joint 'possession': *Beaumont and Fletcher's plays / Charles('s) and Louise's baby*; otherwise each element has the suffix: *Milton's and Shakespeare's works.*

Nouns in apposition have the group genitive when the complement of the genitive is stated: *at Smith, the bookseller's office*, but if the complement is omitted, the suffix may also be attached to the first element, or to both: *at Smith's, the bookseller / at Smith's, the bookseller's / at Smith, the bookseller's.*

If the word-group ends with a personal pronoun (e.g. *all of us*) a difficulty occurs, in that the genitive suffix cannot be added to the personal pronouns, expressions with the possessive pronoun being used instead: *all of our minds are made up / this may happen during some of our lifetimes.*—The usual course is to avoid this construction: *the feelings of either of you.*

2.6.1 The genitive often approaches other expressions in content. Since its function on the whole resembles that of an adjective, it is to be expected that roughly the same content could be expressed by a genitive and an adjective, or an uninflected noun used adjectivally: *female hearts / women's hearts // the Labour party('s) bull against co-operation with other parties*; and also by prepositional expressions: *story for children / children's story*, and of these, prepositional expressions with *of* in particular are very close in content to the genitive:

Lord Halifax's speech receives unanimous commendation from the Canadian Press . . . In France the speech of Lord Halifax has been received with warm approval / this is as true of Bismarck's Germany as it is of Hitler's, or of the Prussia of Frederick the Great.

Which of these two forms of expression is used in a given case depends particularly upon 1) the type (gender) of the noun, 2) the concepts attached to the genitive and 3) phonetic considerations.

2.6.2 Nouns with an association of individuality take the genitive form, especially if they are also associated with an idea of life.

Thus proper names and appellatives denoting persons are frequently found in the genitive: *Osler's cut-crystal fountain / Bede's characters / Jack's boots // men's hearts / the child's father / a negro's teeth*; but *of*-constructions are also common: *in the day of Wesley / the figure of a dear friend*.

Names of animals are frequently found in the genitive: *a bird's bill / a horse's harness / the dog's nose*; the kind of animal is however also a determining factor: *a cocoon of a silkworm / the jaws of the bee*. (Cf. the use of *he* and *she* as against *it*.)

When in collectives the idea of the persons in question is to the fore, they are often found in the genitive: *the Government's delaying tactics / vernacular services brought much that had been unintelligible within the laity's grasp / a great tide making its way into the channels of the people's life*; but without a connotation of the individuals the genitive is not common; compare *the family's only concern* with *the great men of the family*.

In addition to this there is in formal English extensive use of the genitive of nouns having an association of individuality, but not of life. These cases range from nouns with a more or less pronounced association of personification to cases of nouns merely denoting a defined phenomenon on which interest is concentrated in the context in question: *France's heartless neglect / Southern Rhodesia's educated Africans / Europe's difficulties / London's art treasures / he had accepted the hospital's kindly shelter / these advertisers provide half the paper's revenue / the nation's temper / H.M.S. Hunter's crew / the Bible's influence in post-Reformation England / the full influence of antiquity's thought / in other fields of that time's history / the weakness of the play's structure / we look back at the church's white and grey bulk / at the joint of the road's raised elbow / the engineers at the Koyna dam were confident of the dam's importance to Indian prosperity*.

2.6.3 Terms of measurement (particularly of time) are exceptional in that they are generally found in the genitive: *two shillings' worth of apples* // *two or three minutes' hunting* / *an hour's work*.

The same applies to adverbial denotations of periods of time used substantivally: *today's traffic problem* / *last night's fall of snow* / *next year's difficulties*. There is often a difference in meaning between these genitive forms and corresponding expressions with *of*: *yesterday's / today's paper*; cf. *an invention of yesterday* (= 'recent') / *the language of today*.

2.6.4 Normally nouns with a non-countable content in the indefinite form are not found in the genitive: *the humidity of air*; but in combination with *for . . . sake* the genitive is also found in such cases: *for honesty's sake* / *for very decency's sake*, with an association of personification (cf. 2.6.2, last section).

2.6.5 The genitive can express different relations between the two noun elements it connects.

The possessive may be regarded as the main concept of the genitive, in so far as the most concrete possessive concept can be expressed (almost) solely by the genitive, not by the corresponding expressions with *of*: *Jack's coat* / *my brother's car*; very rarely we find cases such as *the ladies talked of . . . the new bonnet of Mrs Wilson* (Somerset Maugham: *Of Human Bondage* Chap. VI). Where the possessive concept is more abstract expressions with *of* are common in addition to the genitive expressions: *Whitefield's tremendous eloquence* / *the spacious eloquence of Hooker*. The degree of concreteness of the possessive concept often determines the choice of construction: *he heard his brother's footsteps outside* / *she followed in the footsteps of her husband* // *the poet's heart was buried in his first wife's grave* / *primitive things have great power to touch the heart of the beholder*.

The subjective or objective genitive is found in connection with an action noun. The subjective genitive is common: *My sister's fear* / *Parliament's control over the departments* / *the swallow's feeding of her young is wonderful*. The same concept is not often expressed by means of *of*, as such combinations may easily be taken to express an objective genitive value: *in spite of the adoration of Victoria*, *Albert was still a stranger in a strange land*; but the subjective genitive is

often replaced by a construction with *by*: *the conquest by the Turks of Constantinople / the evacuation of the Sudeten areas by the Czechs*.

The objective genitive is not common: *three members of the Air Force were charged with Beaumont's murder / my sister's admirers*; this concept is usually expressed by *of*-phrases: *the murder of Beaumont*, and a value other than the objective genitive can generally be ascribed to cases of such genitives; thus *my sister's admirers* may equally be taken to have a possessive value; so also apparent objective genitives such as: *the prisoner's release / a man giving evidence at his father's inquest*.

As a whole, it is often relations less obvious than the above that are expressed by means^o of the genitive: *my brother's funeral / death / picture*.

A genitive + complement has an association of the definite: *Dr Watson's enemies* thus means *the enemies of Dr Watson*, not *enemies of Dr Watson*. For this reason the genitive construction cannot be used in cases such as: *it strengthens the idea gleaned from other utterances of Dr Watson*.—Cf. 2.7.3.

2.6.6 While a string of *of*-expressions is common: *the meeting of the Sub-committee of the Non-Intervention Committee*, a corresponding series of genitives is rarely found: *my cousin's wife's first husband*. Usually, particularly in formal English, there is a mixture of these possibilities: *the intensity of the public's distaste of the medicines administered / one of London's most elegant shops / an unimportant handful of the Government's supporters*.

In cases where the genitive singular and plural are identical in sound the genitive plural is generally avoided: *the luggage of the passengers / the opinion of his friends*, unless the plural concept is otherwise indicated: *these two passengers' luggage*, or obvious for other reasons: *my parents' surprise*. But in written English the genitive plural is used more widely: *the sputniks' appearance has lost them 'face' / increases in Ministers' and members' salaries / everyone else steals the Socialists' clothes / nine chaffinches come to my windows . . . the little shrew mouse living in the wall was interested in the chaffinches' crumbs*.

Adjectives used substantivally with a plural value cannot be used in the genitive: *the spiritual welfare of the poor / the language of the deaf-and-dumb*.

Instead of genitive of phrases (2.5.4) the *of*-construction is often used in formal English: *the son of the man who was here yesterday / the eloquence of Donne and Andrews and Jeremy Taylor and many another.*

While a genitive is found immediately before its complement, and can be separated from it only by the adjectival members belonging to the complement: *my father's hotel bills / Neville's tragic death / my mother's every whim*, the elements linked by *of* may be separated in formal English: *the arrival from across the channel of the first farming peoples / the death took place on Thursday of Sir John Foley Grey . . . / the question was raised at the meeting at the Foreign Office on Tuesday of the Sub-committee . . .*

In addition to the uses of the genitive described above, there are many stock expressions, relics of the use of this form in the past: *ship's papers / a surgeon's mate / out of harm's way / at one's wits' end / have something at one's fingers' ends*, and others.

2.7.1 In the cases hitherto discussed, the genitive has been in the nature of an adjective qualifying the succeeding noun. A genitive may however also be substantival, and carry out the usual functions of nouns: the complement of the genitive is in such cases understood, but expressed elsewhere in the context: *Macaulay's is a brilliant style // Buoyed up by her own abundant energies, she would not believe that Albert's might prove unequal to the strain / Albert's decisions were eternal. So, indeed, were Victoria's // the foreign policy of England was not his province; it was hers and her Ministers' / imperialism was the dominant creed of the country. It was Victoria's as well // a mouth like an inquisitor's / the dog's sight is considerably weaker than man's // her true life had ceased with her husband's / an arms race in the Middle East is certainly not in the Arabs' interests, still less in Israel's; nor is it in the West's.*—In the case of nouns which for reasons already mentioned are not often found in the genitive, expressions with *that of* / *those of* are used instead: *his name and career, like that of Wilberforce and his friends, are a reminder that . . .*; and in the heavier, formal style these in general often take the place of the above-mentioned genitives without a complement: *Victoria imported into her protests a personal vehemence which those of Albert lacked / the obstinacy of monarchs is not as that of other men / it was upon his children that his private interests and those of Victoria were concentrated / the rapid transition from Fielding's novels to those of Miss Austen.*

2.7.2 The genitive of proper names, designations of relationship, and tradesmen's designations are used substantivally as indications of locality; in these cases the complement is not expressed elsewhere in the context: *St Paul's was damaged / I dined at my uncle's / what did you buy at the butcher's?*

These genitives denote:

(1) institutions of various kinds (restaurants, theatres, sports grounds, churches, hospitals, etc.): *Doney's was the gathering place of everybody one knew / he liked the formality of Lord's . . . they left Lord's . . . he had given young Stephen a birthday, and after Lord's had taken him to the club / he got his haberdashery at Charvet's / he asked me to lunch at Claridge's where he lived when in London / there was Gerald du Maurier at the Prince's, as good an actor as any of them*;—these genitives have the value of proper names; compare *St Bartholomew's* and *Bedlam* (names of hospitals);

(2) a home: *were you at uncle John's? / she left her husband and went to her father's / why did you say that at the Thompsons' last night?*;—these genitives have an association of the host-guest relationship, not simply of locality; cf. *my sister's house is awful / when we arrived at the Craigs' home, I offered to go in and help to undress him / he went to the Carters' house and asked for her*;

(3) a shop: *his wife left the dressmaker's to go and play bridge / he went to the bookseller's in Piccadilly where he occasionally bought books / boots bought at some large firm's*;—the association here is that of the shop seen from the customer's point of view; cf.: *not just a little mannequin in a dressmaker's shop, but a respectable married woman / the battle-field was like a butcher's shop*.

2.7.3 Still another use of the genitive is to be found in the construction sometimes known as 'the double genitive': *a nephew of King Leopold's*, i.e. *of* + the genitive of either a proper name or an appellative designating one particular person: *any old college friend of my son's*. The substantival member before *of* is either indefinite plural or a noun with the indefinite article, a numeral or an indefinite, interrogative or demonstrative pronoun attached: *lyrics of Donne's 'happen' to us as surely as if they had been translated from the Chinese / two friends of Jack's / what friends of my father's? / that wife of your father's*. A noun with the definite article can be followed by 'the double genitive' only when determined by a restrictive relative clause: *the friend of my father's who is going abroad*.

A genitive + complement has, as mentioned above (2.6.5, last section), an association of the definite: *this man's daughters* is thus *the daughters of this man* (i.e. 'all his daughters', or 'all the daughters concerned in this particular context'). With the help of 'the double genitive' it is possible to give the possessive (and subjective) genitive an association of the indefinite: *a first cousin of Victoria's and Albert's / he took some remark of Laura's to mean that she lived at the villa*, and where it is a case of material property it is the only means of expression: *a great old repeater watch of her father's*. In those cases where the complement of *of* is to be found both uninflected and in the genitive, the difference is sometimes that the expression with 'the double genitive' has a partitive association (i.e. 'among several'), which the corresponding expressions with *of* + uninflected noun lacks: *Herr Henlein is being used to make Czecho-Slovakia a vassal of Germany . . . if Czecho-Slovakia becomes a vassal of Germany's, Germany will be in a position of enormous strength / it was the family joke that she would be as fat as an aunt of Mrs Johnson, called Aunt Elizabeth*.—The difference between the two expressions is still greater when *of* + uninflected noun may express an objective relation: *a picture of Mr Johnson* as against *a picture of Mr Johnson's*.

Expressions with a demonstrative pronoun + noun + 'double genitive' have no association of the partitive, but connote the interest (often approving or disapproving) of the speaker: *now for this daughter of your uncle's / that mother of Jane's*.

ADJECTIVES

3.1.1 The approximation of this part of speech to nouns is discussed in 2.1.1 ff., to the present and past participles of verbs in 1.5.1 ff. and 1.6 f. respectively.—It is sometimes difficult to draw the distinction between adjectives and adverbs; the suffix *-ly*, which may be the formal distinction: *a cheerful face / he spoke cheerfully*, is missing in many cases: *a fast train / he ran fast*, while in others the suffix *-ly* is found in both the adjective and the adverb: *leisurely movements / he works leisurely*.—The distinction must be based upon function; see below, and 4.1.1 ff.

Approximation of adjectives, numerals and pronouns can be seen from examples such as *few men / five men / some men*. Adjectives are distinguished from pronouns by the possibility of being preceded by determinatives: *these few men*, and from numerals especially by reason of content: numerals indicate a position in the series in relation to zero.

3.1.2 Form. Adjectives can have only the inflexional endings *-(e)r* and *-(e)st*: *greater, greatest*; these suffixes are also found in the comparative and superlative forms of certain adverbs (4.2.1 f.). Among adjectives, many cannot be inflected thus, either because they are compared with *more* and *most* instead, for phonetic reasons: *more valuable, most valuable*, or because they are not compared for reasons of content, e.g. *only, considerable, elderly, previous*.

3.1.3 Function. An adjective is usually attached to a noun (or pronoun) in attributive usage, in apposition or as predicative complement: *a silent, austere man / a chain of hostels, austere but cheap / offer something cheaper and more showy / he became happy / it made him angry*.—For the substantival use of adjectives see 3.2.1 ff.

3.1.4 As regards content the adjectives belong to two main groups: (1) descriptive, denoting a quality: *wonderful weather / a chivalrous gentleman / the glorious reign of Queen Elizabeth*; (2) limiting, denoting a category, a section of a whole or a number: *various books / the previous page / alien property / an equestrian statue / medical assistance*. The first concept is compatible with comparison, while

the second is not. Many adjectives can be used with both these associations: *What a little foot! / the little finger // a musical voice / a musical instrument // foreign manners / foreign languages // popular prices / proposals for a Popular Front // the English Buddhist is a very English Buddhist.*

In the attributive position adjectives with a limiting value often approach very close in content to the value of the corresponding noun; compare *naval hero* with *sea king*, *solar energy* with *sun power*, *childish years* with *child mind*. And coordination of adjectives and substantives with a limiting value is frequent: *France's aim is to build up a new Europe in the political, defence, and economic fields / there had been certain social or family duties they kept apart.*—Note also names of materials: *export of flax cloth; of silk fabrics, and of woollen cloth*; only the adjectives *woollen*, *wooden*, *earthen* are now used of materials with a limiting value; apart from these, the corresponding nouns have been substituted, and the original material adjectives in *-en* are now used with a descriptive value: *flaxen*, *golden*, *silken hair*. Compare with these such cases as: *an enemy ship / a Socialist government / a war song*, where the corresponding adjectives have only a descriptive association: *a hostile crowd / a Socialistic state / a warlike spirit.*

A noun less frequently functions as an adjective with a descriptive value: *he gave a loud and animal yawn*; in this usage it may however have adverbs of degree attached and act as a predicative complement: *the tolerant indulgence with which most of us face the purely period piece / the gaslight softened the rusty colours in the kitchen into warmth . . . the fire was gold / the whole house was a little less massive . . . and the company less exclusively family than anywhere else in the March circle.*

The Substantival Use of the Adjective

3.2.1 In the common gender an adjective generally cannot act substantivally in the singular; but in the plural it can be substantival if used to connote a whole group;—as a rule it has the definite article in this usage: *it was my duty to find out who the dead man was / a blind person is not demoralized by your purchasing a packet of tea from a sense of pity / he ran like one possessed from tree to tree // peace is good for the good; only the cruel and the blind possess themselves of arms / the aged do see the new things relieved sharply against a background. To the young these new things are often themselves the background // he saw no object in spending money on battleships while there remained poor to be fed / nor was there any of the clamouring one sees among young in the nest.*

In the neuter the adjective may act substantivally when it connotes the concept expressed by the adjective in the generic sense;—the adjective here has the definite article: *it is indeed the unseen, the imagined, the untold-of, the fabulous, the forgotten that alone lies safe from mortal moth and rust / we had tasted the untastable.*

Special cases:

3.2.2 In the singular of the common gender adjectives were formerly found with a substantival function; this can still be seen in the early period of modern English in a number of cases where it is now obsolete: *Such men as he be never at heart's ease Whiles they behold a greater than themselves* (Shakespeare). This usage is now found only in a very few cases: *the Almighty; the accused, the condemned, the deceased, the departed, my (your, etc.) beloved/betrothed/intended; dear in the vocative: my dear/yes, dear.* (See also **3.2.4**.) *Dead* is also still found in formal English (where more colloquial English would use *dead person, friend*, etc.): *When Botha died . . . , Smuts came softly to the house in Sunnyside . . . to say good-bye to his dead / He had . . . a special connection with Albert . . . The gruff . . . Scotsman was, she felt, in some mysterious way, a legacy from the dead* (Lytton Strachey: Queen Victoria Ch. IX).

3.2.3 As regards the common gender plural, only examples of a generic value as to time and place were given in **3.2.1**; but the

definite article + adjective may have a rather more limited value, namely the whole group referred to in the context in question: *in the north outdoor games are seldom played except by the young / these ancient villages are what the military have made them with their barracks . . . / . . . a reason which made him hate Jews. One of the hated may show him a kindness . . . / the most touching incident came when 200 blinded men went by with linked arms and stewards at the end of each rank to guide the sightless / no civilised troops . . . could have endured the hell . . . the living leaping high to avoid the dying who clutched at their heels* (cf. 1.6.1) */ the work of rescuing the injured and removing the bodies of the dead lasted until well into the afternoon.*

—These cases may approximate closely to expressions consisting of definite article + adjective + noun, used of a group; the latter form of expression is used when a group is seen as part of a larger whole: *I want to meet the young people after the service / 13 passengers were taken to hospital. Six of the injured people were detained . . . / the Emperor addresses a flamboyant godspeed to the parting ones.*—For definite article + adjective as against demonstrative pronoun + adjective (e.g. *the/those injured*), see under demonstrative pronouns; for *one(s)* as a prop-word, see under *one*.

A few adjectives are found substantivally in the common gender plural without the association 'a whole group' attached to the expression: *they saw the ground strewn with enemy dead / they carried wounded in / a new class of rich / our poor / a bird feeding its young.*—(If the functional features mentioned in 2.1.3 are taken to determine the distinction between substantives and adjectives these words are substantives.)—Other adjectives will in such cases necessarily be attached to a noun: *Elderly people are often much more romantic than younger people / all old men rejoice in unfathomable wisdom / it is easier to be persuaded that all your troubles are due to an influx into your country of strange people than to believe that they may be due to an exploitation by your own kith and kin.* Note furthermore that the substantival use of the words mentioned (*dead, wounded, etc.*) is found only with a collective association; when the individuals are visualized these also have a noun attached: *I stooped hurriedly over those dead men in fieldgrey overcoats / 14 wounded members of H.M.S. Hunter's crew / to think that we're living like quite rich people when really we are absolutely broke / two poor men entering the gate // in the twigs of my raspberry canes a yellowhammer has built a nest, which now contains two young ones . . . The young birds with their fleshy lips have a curiously reptilian expression.*

3.2.4 In addition to the many words that are commonly both nouns and adjectives: *his only son was an imbecile / imbecile conduct // a war in which Turkey is a neutral / neutral territory // a child of civilized parents brought up among savages is a savage / the spiritual homogeneity of a savage tribe*; (thus also *ancient, bankrupt, Christian, criminal, equal, human, male, modern, national, native, private, superior, untouchable*, etc.)—there are others that are nouns only in a particular type of language: (colloquial) *he is a dear / you are young, dears / none of you grown-ups / you are a silly //* (technical) *Many mental defectives make a normal adjustment to life / cards for the consequences of weddings in all numbers from singles to quadruplets / a three-year-old*; in standard English they appear only as adjectives, and the nouns quoted above are then replaced by expressions such as: *dear friends / most grown-up people are silly / the mentally defective*, and the like.

Other words can (only) be nouns in the plural: *we imitate our elders and betters / the commons included the whole people, not the lords / the first serious affray between whites and coloureds*; but in the singular they are adjectives, viz.: *a white man/woman*, etc.

Designations of Nationality

3.2.5 The largest group of these is like the words discussed in **3.2.4**; they are found both as nouns and as adjectives: *with his stiff, cropped hair he looked an unmistakable German / an observer warned us that there were Germans in our front trench / the Germans were placing themselves in a position to outbuild Great Britain / the German naval challenge was immediate*; thus *American, Greek, Hungarian, Prussian*, etc.

In another group the nouns and adjectives are distinct: *Gunnar Franck was a Dane from Copenhagen / the real settlement of England by Danes began in the year 876 / the Dutch did not relish the idea of both shores of the Sound being in the hands of the Swedes any more than in the hands of the Danes / it was the desire of the Great Powers to see the integrity of the Danish monarchy preserved*; thus *Finn, Finnish; Iclander, Icelandic; Pole, Polish; Swede, Swedish; Turk, Turkish*, etc.—*Spaniard, Spanish* also belongs to this group; but in addition to *the Spaniards* as the designation of the nation as a whole, *the*

Spanish is now more frequently found, corresponding to group four, below.

A third group comprises a number of adjectives that act unchanged as nouns: *the landlady was a blond and blowsy Swiss / the only persons to be seen were serious Swiss / both the Germans and the Swiss guarded the frontier with severity / on the walls were oleographs of Swiss lakes*; thus *Cingalese, Indonese, Japanese, Portuguese*, etc.—This type also includes *Chinese*: *he had offered a contract to a Chinese to make a certain section of the road, and the Chinese had asked more than M. could afford to pay / three or four Chinese were standing behind the counter / the Chinese have been throughout their history a colonizing race / on her feet were little Chinese silk slippers*; but, in the first two usages (viz. of a single person and of certain persons) we also find instead *Chinaman, -men*; *Chinawoman, -women* (cf. group four, below): *the door was opened by the fat Chinaman / he acknowledged that it was true about the Chinawoman*, designations with a touch of the colloquial; without this touch are such expressions as: *the Chinese clerk; the Chinese woman*, and the like.

A fourth group consists of regular adjectives, and can therefore only be used substantivally in the common gender plural of the whole nation (or a group representing the nation) and sometimes of an indefinite number of individuals; in the case of the single individual, and certain individuals in the plural, a noun is added; if this is *man (men)* or *woman (women)* it normally forms a compound with the adjective: *they were chaperoned by a little old English-woman / many Englishmen abroad did credit to England / the English lost at Hastings because they were backward in the art of war / The studio was much fuller than it had been in the morning, and there was not the preponderance of English and Americans / 7,000 men fought on the English side*.—This applies also to: *Cornish, Dutch, French, Irish, Manx, Scotch, Welsh*.

The Scottish form of the adjective *Scotch* is *Scots*: '*The Scotsman*' with an objective attitude towards facts naturally attracts similar minds in its readers / the barons, many of whom were Norman in feeling, had become good Scotsmen / he defeated a Scottish army at Dunbar, the Scots rushing down to attack what they thought to be a retreating force / he spoke with a Scots accent.—The noun *Scot* and the adjective *Scottish* are also common in the North of England and Scotland: *The Darian Scheme was the invention of a Scot named William Paterson / a court*

of eighty Scots and twenty-four Englishmen tried the question / Scots sometimes only see Edward's violent methods / Mary Queen of Scots / the northern part came into Scottish hands.

3.2.6 As mentioned in 3.2.1, the definite article + adjective in the neuter connotes 'the generic': *don't expect me to do the impossible*. When there is an association of the specific it is replaced by 1) a corresponding noun, 2) a combination of adjective + a noun such as *thing, part, feature, aspect, side*, etc., or 3) other expressions: *man can imitate the majesty of time and space / the beauty of the existing system / the novelty of the idea // the fine thing about a wrangle on cricket is that there is no bitterness in it / the singular part of the battle was that no one could say what had happened // do what is right*.

3.2.7 Corresponding to the fact described in 3.2.4, that the same word can be either an adjective or a noun with a common gender value, one and the same word is found as adjective and noun with a neuter value: *a woman with a past / past generations // don't go out after dark / a dark night // G. K.'s Weekly / a weekly wage*; thus *evil, future, good, present, sweet, vegetable*, etc. In this category special mention may be made of designations of nationality and of colour: *he speaks fluent French / his perfect German had no more than a trace of English accent // by night the farther distance last freed itself from blue / she turned a deadly white / a picture in greens and blues*.

In a number of cases the word is found as a noun (only) in the plural: *gilts have made rapid strides in the past four days / training in fundamentals / greens and potatoes*; thus *eatables, goods, movables, necessities, sundries, theatricals, wilds, woollens*, etc.

3.2.8 Certain comparatives and superlatives may be used as nouns to a higher degree than described above (cf. what is said later about *one* as a prop-word): *worse was to follow // S. was the first to volunteer / Of them all, Richard seemed to him the best, he said—the most disinterested / Even H. was going, nearly last of all // the worst of spending week-ends in the country is the difficulty of getting news / She was at her worst—effusive, insincere*.—In the above the whole or the group within which the comparison takes place is

expressed or implicit; cf. expressions without this implication such as: *the last person to find comfort in these remarks is probably Mr T. himself* / *He would not be the first man to find himself a mystery to himself* / *teachers are the last persons on earth who can believe that all men are born equal* // *to embarrass her was the last thing he wished* / *she could say anything to him . . . that was almost the first thing she had felt about him.*

Comparison of Adjectives

3.3.1 The comparative and superlative are formed by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est* to the positive form of the adjective: *small—smaller—smallest* / *great—greater—greatest*; or these degrees are expressed by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*: *precious—more precious—most precious* / *afraid—more afraid—most afraid*. For the use of these two sets of expressions see below, **3.4.1** ff.

3.3.2 Of orthographical peculiarities arising from the addition of the comparative and superlative suffixes, the following must be mentioned:

1. Adjectives ending in *-e* in the positive acquire only an additional *-r* and *-st*: *fine—finer—finest* / *true—truer—truest* / *free—freer—freest*.

2. Single final consonants are doubled after singly written, stressed vowels: *hot—hotter—hottest* / *big—bigger—biggest*; further *-l* is doubled after an unstressed vowel in *cruel—crueller—cruellest*, and (though this varies) in combinations with *-ful*: *cheerful—cheerful(l)er—cheerful(l)est*. (This doubling of *-l* is not found in American English.)

3. The final *-y* of adjectives is changed to *-i-* when following a consonant, but remains when preceded by a vowel: *happy—happier—happiest* / *dry—drier—driest* // *grey—greyer—greyest* / *gay—gayer—gayest*.—But in British English *shy*, *sly*, *spry*, *wry* normally keep the *-y*: *shy—shyer—shyest*, etc. (In American English it is generally changed to *-i-* in these adjectives.)

3.3.3 Phonetic peculiarities arising from the addition of the comparative and superlative suffixes:

1. /r/ which has become silent in the final position in the positive is retained before the vowel of the suffixes: *dear* /diə/—*dearer* /diərə/—*dearest* /diərist/ / *sore* /sɔ:/—*sorer* /sɔ:rə/—*sorest* /sɔ:rist/ / *clever* /klevə/—*cleverer* /klevərə/—*cleverest* /klevərist/.

2. *long*, *strong*, *young*: the final *-ng* of the positive = /ŋ/, but before the suffix vowel = /ŋg/: *long* /lɒŋ/—*longer* /lɒŋgə/—*longest* /lɒŋgɪst/, etc.—Other adjectives ending in *-ng* do not have this phonetic peculiarity: *cunning* /kʌnɪŋ/—*cunninger* /kʌnɪŋə/—*cunningest* /kʌnɪŋɪst/.

3. Adjectives ending in the positive in an /l/, with syllabic value have a 'clear' /l/ before the suffix vowel: *noble* /noub|/—*nobler* /noublə/—*noblest* /noublist/.—Note that the number of syllables is therefore not increased in words of this type (*able*, *gentle*, *nimble*, etc.) when the suffixes are added.

3.3.4 Irregularly compared adjectives:

<i>bad/ill</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i>
	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i>

Both sets of comparative and superlative forms are used of distance (including figurative usage); metaphorically *further*, *furthest* are used, the *-a*-forms in this usage being now rare.—This also applies to the adverbial usage of these forms.—Examples: *Now look at the further pillar!* / *Philip, who lived furthest off, was to go first* / *the inn is a mile further on* / *Parliament may be divorced still further from any real influence on the present problems of our time* / *I doubt whether the English tradition of not bringing politics into private life has often been carried much farther* // *let us have no further delay* / (*representatives of both sides met to explore the matter farther*).

<i>good/well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>late</i>	<i>later</i>	<i>latest</i>
	<i>latter</i>	<i>last</i>

The regular forms are used of time, the irregular of sequence: *the advance through middle age into later life* / *the latest train by which you can get there today* // . . . *the Princess of Baden and the Princess of Saxe-Coburg. The latter, he thought, would perhaps be the better of the two* / *an intellectual suppleness combined with moral integrity, which latter is evident enough* . . . / *the last house in the road* / *the last page of the book* / *the last quarter of the century* / *I have to thank you for your last letter*.—In the examples given above *latter* is used of the last-mentioned of two, and in contrast to *former* (see under demonstrative pronouns). In addition *latter* is used of the second of two parts into which a whole is divided (here in contrast to *first*): *the latter half of that long career* / *the latter part of the century* / (archaically:) *God knows there are potent explosives in these latter days* / *his latter years*.

As regards the values belonging to *last* it may be noted that it is used in contrast to *next*: *last week* / *last Monday* / *the last chapter we*

read; and in contrast to *first*: *in the last days of August / he was the last person to call*; that it is used of 'the last so far': *there was hardly any froth on the last glass of beer / what happened last time?* as well as of the last absolutely: *this is the last chance / his last words*. Where the sequence of events, actions, etc. is concerned, *last* and *latest* may approach each other to some extent, in so far as there may often be two ways of looking at the same thing (viz. order or time): *the last/latest arrival // the last/latest comers // he thought that his last hour had come* / (Strachey: Queen Victoria:) *The girl, the wife, the aged woman, were the same: conscientiousness, pride, and simplicity were hers to the latest hour* (i.e. 'in the evening of life') // *the last news we received* (i.e. 'there has been no later news') / *the latest news* (i.e. 'the most recent') // *the war now entered on its last phase / this book describes what happened to the Churchills between 1722 and the comparatively recent return of the family to fame . . . In the latest phase, of course, the family becomes American as well as English*.—When the two superlatives are contrasted *last* has the sense 'absolutely last', and *latest* the sense 'last for the time being': *your latest, we hope not your last, contribution / I hope his latest book will not be his last*.

little

less

least

lesser

When *little* is attached to nouns with a countable association (*a little girl / her little efforts*) it has an absolute, emotional value (compare its intellectual synonym *small*) and is not normally compared; if *little* used thus does have comparison, the inflected forms are *littler, littlest*; these are deliberate neologisms, and are not frequent: *'An amourette, what is that?' she said. 'It's you, even littler than you are, dressed in little wings', he said. She was the littlest thing imaginable*.—Attached to nouns with uncountable associations, *little* denotes quantity, and is inflected *less, least*: *he gives us little trouble / he takes very little pains with his work // drink less wine / less money is needed now // there is not the least wind today / the country that received least assistance*.

The two comparative forms are now clearly distinguished: *less* is attached to nouns with uncountable associations, and denotes quantity; *lesser* is attached to nouns with countable associations and denotes quality (i.e. 'less important or valuable'). Thus *less* is found in cases such as: *this is of less importance / put on less weight*; compare also: *less size, less rent* with *a smaller size, a lower rent*; *lesser* is

used in cases such as: *after the main surrender of the Japanese to General MacArthur . . . the lesser surrenders may now take their course / last month S. was tried for murder . . . but acquitted. Now another court has sentenced him to death on the lesser charge of carrying arms / the lesser Sheiks may be anxious to be left in peace / a lesser man than your father / which is the lesser of the two?*—The use of *less* instead of *fewer* with collectives such as *clothes, people, police, troops*, is regarded by some grammarians as incorrect, but is not uncommon.—Formerly *less* and *lesser* could be used of the size of countable phenomena (= *smaller*); this is still to be seen in certain stock expressions: *to a less degree (or extent) / may your shadow never grow less / choose the lesser of two evils.*

<i>much/many</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>near</i>	<i>nearer</i>	<i>nearest</i>
<i>nigh</i>	<i>near</i>	<i>next</i>

Of the two positive forms only *near* is generally used: *The Near East / a near relation*; *nigh* is obsolete as an adjective, and as an adverb is found only in archaic or poetic use: *night is drawing nigh*.—The ordinary comparative form is *nearer*: *success is nearer than you think*; *near* as the comparative is now used only of the left side of a carriage and horse: *the near horse / the near foreleg*.—Of the superlatives, *nearest* is used of distance: *the nearest way to the station*, while *next* refers to order: *when is the next train / the next house in the road*. Used metaphorically, *next* can have the value of *nearest* in certain stock expressions: *next (door) to impossible / the next of kin / next heir*; compare: *the death of Edward left the succession in a fine confusion. The nearest heir was Edgar the Atheling, but he was a boy / the mesolithic peoples were fair, like their nearest kinsmen.*

<i>old</i>	<i>older</i>	<i>oldest</i>
	<i>elder</i>	<i>eldest</i>

The inflected forms with *-o-* denote age: *when you get a little older, you'll understand / the oldest laughter in Europe comes to us from Homer*; the *-e-*forms are now used especially of the sequence of brothers and sisters: *Their Majesties, the elder Princesses, and some unfortunate Ambassadors . . . might be seen ranged round a table / the elder of my nieces had brought home a money-box / Of the two brothers of Prince A., the elder had married her granddaughter, and the younger . . . / it is not every day that one marries the eldest daughter of the Queen of England / the eldest of them died in infancy; and as*

regards age, *older*, *oldest* is also used of these family relationships: *If Nathaniel expressed a wish to do a thing, I humoured him, after the fashion of an older brother who has built fond dreams around a younger / her offspring . . . the oldest she treated as if they were children still*; thus *older* is always used as the predicative adjective: *she is old, but her sister is older still*, and combined with *than*: *my eldest brother is six years older than I*.—*elder*, *eldest* could formerly be used of sequence in other fields: *the elder partner*, now *the senior partner*; *elder times*, now *older times*; of this usage there remain a few phrases such as *an elder statesman* and *elder* attached to a proper name to distinguish it from a later person of the same name: *the Elder Pitt / Pliny the Elder*.—Note also *elder* as a noun: *you should follow the advice of your elders / he is an elder in the church*.

3.3.5 The comparatives *former*, *inner*, *nether*, *outer*, *upper*, (*utter*) cannot be said to correspond to any positive forms, and there are no corresponding regular superlatives. These comparatives are used only to express contrast, not degree: *a former engagement* (as against *later*) / *the former point* (as against *latter*) // *an inner/outer wall* // *the inner/outer man* // *nether* was formerly the opposite of *upper*: *the nether lip*, but is now found only in certain stock expressions: *the nether world*, archaic for *the underworld* / *nether garments*, facetious for *trousers* // *upper lip* (as against *underlip*, *lower lip*).

Some Latin comparatives, e.g. *major*, *minor*; *exterior*, *interior*; *junior*, *senior* have this value: *minor planet / interior angle / junior partner*. The two last mentioned may become true positives and take comparison: *some blame attaches to those in more senior positions who set out the rules to which officials must work*.

3.3.6 The suffix *-most* is found as the superlative sign in a number of words, most of which indicate locality. Some are composed with the comparative: *innermost*, *outermost*, *uppermost*, etc., others with the positive of the adjective or adverb: *foremost*, *hindmost*, *inmost*, *undermost*, etc., others again with nouns: *rearmost*, *topmost*, etc.

3.4.1 The concepts expressed by the comparative and superlative suffixes can also be expressed by *more* and *most* followed by the positive: *one pleasure of growing older is that many things seem to be growing fresher and more lively than we once supposed them to be / the little shop was more scented and darker than ever / words are the greatest, the most momentous of all our inventions*. The

form of expression used—synthetic or analytic—is determined by considerations of sound, syntax, and content.

3.4.2 Of phonetic factors, the length of the positive is the most important; monosyllabic adjectives normally have comparison with suffixes: *hard—harder—hardest* / *young—younger—youngest*. Certain monosyllabic adjectives however generally do not have suffixes: *like, right, worth, wrong*; so also adjectives denoting nationality, and past participles.

Examples: *I'm a free man—in fact one of the freest in Rome* // *your wife is more right than you seem to realize* / *this inn is far more worth seeing* / *his art is more French than that of his great contemporary* / *he coldshouldered me in the most marked manner*.

3.4.3 Many disyllabic adjectives have the ordinary inflection with the suffix:

(1) Adj. ending in *-y*: *happy—happier—happiest* / *merry—merrier—merriest*; ex.: *the members of that community seem to have been happier, healthier, better behaved and more genuinely religious*.

(2) Adj. ending in *-le* with syllabic value: *noble—nobler—noblest* / *subtle—subtler—subtlest*; ex.: *the simplest and most obvious method is the granting of a subsidy*.

(3) Adj. ending in *-er*: *clever—cleverer—cleverest* / *tender—tenderer—tenderest*; though not *eager, proper*; ex.: *even the bitterest scoffers were converted, and joined the chorus of praise* // *A. was the most eager peruser of the "Commentaries"*.

(4) Adj. ending in *-ow*: *mellow—mellower—mellowest* / *shallow—shallower—shallowest*; ex.: *take the word in the narrowest sense*.

(5) Adj. with the final syllable stressed: *polite—politer—politest* / *profound—profounder—profoundest*; but not a number of adjectives of clearly foreign origin, such as *antique, bizarre, burlesque*, etc., nor certain adjectives commonly found only in predicative use, such as *afraid, alive, alone, aware, content*;—for example: *he thought out the details with the minutest care* // *the camel has the most grotesque head* / *she is the most alive of any one I know*.

(6) Certain other adj., such as *common, cruel, handsome, pleasant, quiet, stupid*: *this is one of the commonest and most objectionable*

mistakes made by foreigners in pronouncing English / crueller forms of torture were reported to be in use in China at the beginning of the 19th century / I am content to stand still at the age to which I am arrived: to be no younger, no richer, no handsomer / nothing could be pleasanter than my stay in America / St John's Wood Road was quieter then / by nature a tortoise may be no stupider than a bird.

3.4.4 Other disyllabic adjectives, and adjectives with more than two syllables, are compared analytically: *hostile—more hostile—most hostile / real—more real—most real / tiresome—more tiresome—most tiresome / curious—more curious—most curious / creative—more creative—most creative / objectionable—more objectionable—most objectionable.* There is however synthetic comparison of some of the adjectives of two and three syllables which are formed by adding a negative prefix to synthetically compared monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives, e.g. *unkind, ignoble, uneasy, unruly, untidy, unwieldy.*

Examples: *to stage the most modest play on Broadway costs about seventy thousand dollars / that most difficult and most important of all the arts—the art of living together in harmony // I'm the unhappiest woman in England.*

3.4.5 Adjectival compounds whose first element is an adjective or adverb compared synthetically when independent, have either the usual inflection of the first element, or comparison with *more* and *most*; the latter inflection is used when the elements form a new whole; compare: *well(-)known—better(-)known—best(-)known with well-to-do—more well-to-do—most well-to-do.* Other compound adjectives of the first type are: *big(-ger, -gest)-chested, dull(-er, -est)-witted, fine(-r, -st)-looking, good(better, best)-hearted, hard(-er, -est)-working, kind(-er, -est)-hearted, long(-er, -est)-armed, etc.;* comparison with *more* and *most* is used for: *far-fetched, good-natured, narrow-minded, old-fashioned, short-sighted, etc.*—Examples: *he was an anti-nationalist of the fullest-blooded order / England has the most old-established gold currency in the world.*

3.5.1 The hitherto cited phonetic rules for the use of synthetic and analytic comparison are however modified by syntactic considerations. If two or more adjectives which for phonetic reasons normally have different forms of comparison are placed side by side, then either the synthetic form will be placed first: *his rugged body looking even stronger and more imperishable in its nakedness /*

the simplest and most obvious method; or the analytic form will be extended to include the co-ordinate adjectives: *he became more and more polite, solicitous, affectionate* / *the circle of public-house attendance is probably more hospitable, wide, and open to change.*

3.5.2 When used in apposition or predicatively, adjectives have a greater tendency towards analytic comparison than when used attributively. Compare *there never was a man more kind and just* with *there never was a kinder and juster man* (Curme: Gram. of the Engl. Lang. II 43.2 Aa). This tendency manifests itself in the circumstance mentioned above (**3.4.3(5)**), that those adjectives that can only be used predicatively have analytic comparison.

Adjectives used in apposition: *the Dutch Wars followed, much more fierce and bloody than the Spanish War* / *they were equipped with tools of analysis more sharp than any I had used*;—used predicatively: *the Scandinavian peoples were more remote from the influence of Roman civilization* / *immigration restrictions on Japanese are much more severe than those on Jews* / *those who find it more easy to remember picturesque details than important facts.*

On the whole, the analytic construction stresses the descriptive value of the adjective: *the nine chaffinches who come to my windows . . . varying from the aggressive crested cock to the most shy of this year's youngsters* / *Cypriots prefer a rather sweet lager type of beer during the winter and a more bitter in summer.*

3.5.3 When the comparative expresses comparison of two qualities in the same person or thing the analytic form is commonly used: *she is more proud than vain* / *he is more kind than intelligent*. *High, long, thick, and wide* however do not permit this construction, but have the synthetic form of comparison + *than* followed by a full clause: *the wall was in some places thicker than it was high* / *the windows were much wider than they were high.*

3.5.4 The desire to use vivid and pithy expressions leads among other things to synthetic comparison of adjectives which are not inflected in this way in more conventional language: *among the things that are, some are righter than others* / *how much scareder Ruth could get than I could* / *the fronter and backer members of the phoneme* / *I shall be happier and bonester in rejoining the ranks of those outside where I naturally belong* / *Sleep—that's also the Other*

World. Otherer even than the heaven of touch / it becomes curiouser and curiouser when it is found that the highest-ranking officer to address the meeting was brought in from outside. (This expression is not as new as the rest, since it is a well-worn quotation from Lewis Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland* Chap. II: '“Curiouser and curiouser!” cried Alice (she was so much surprised, that for the moment she quite forgot to speak good English.)' / *Varieties of different degrees of advancement are used after the front vowels, the frontest occurring after /i/ / If Mr K. is the tiredest person in Denham at the moment, Mr S. is one of the cheerfulest / in the brutalest manner* (the last-quoted type—the definite article+superlative with suffix, with the value of an absolute superlative (3.6.6)—is particularly common).

3.6.1 The comparative is used to indicate 1) that in comparison between two possessors (each of which can be one of more persons or objects) of a quality, more of this quality is found in one possessor than in the other; or 2) that the same person or object possesses more of one quality than of another; or 3) that the same person or object possesses more of a quality in certain circumstances than in others. The other member of the comparison is introduced by *than*, or can be understood: *he is handsomer than his brothers / he is as tall as his brother, but stouter // he was more frightened than hurt* (cp. 3.5.3) // *probably, if he had been born a little earlier he would have been a simpler and a happier man / she was always happier when she was staying with her uncle.*

When in the category 3) type a gradual increase of the quality in question is to be expressed, this is done by the use of two identical comparatives linked by *and*: *in Canada and Siberia agriculture is moving into higher and higher latitudes / Lord John's position grew more and more irksome.*

3.6.2 The comparative is also used to express contrast: *the higher classes / the lower classes / the upper lip / the former problem.* The comparative is here absolute, in that a comparative phrase (with *than*) cannot be added or understood: *elderly people are often more romantic than younger people / few of the aesthetes could keep their balance and remain aesthetes. The more distinguished—for instance, Wilde, Beardsley, and Dowson—ended badly.*

3.6.3 The use of the absolute comparative to denote a degree less than the positive is rare in English: *an elder statesman / dresses for the*

older woman. The concept is expressed 1) by attaching adverbial qualifiers like *rather*, *fairly*, *quite*, etc. to the adjective, 2) by adding the suffix *-ish*, or 3), of course, by means of another adjective denoting the same content to a less degree: *he stayed there for quite a long time* // *These senile parts generally appeal to young or youngish actors* (Oxf. Engl. Dict.) // *he inherited a handsome fortune* (cf. 'large') / *a minor poet* (cf. 'insignificant') / *an elderly man* (cf. 'old').

3.6.4 The superlative is used to indicate 1) that in a comparison between a group of possessors of a quality, more of this quality is to be found in one (or more of these) than in the rest of the group. The group in question may be implicit or stated (in the latter case being linked with the superlative phrase by *of*); 2) that one and the same person or object possesses more of a quality in some circumstances than otherwise. Examples: *his originality has freest play in his essays in inspired nonsense* / *Of these Beerbohm was the most conspicuous* / *'The Path to Rome' is the most vivid, observant, and vigorous of his travel books* // *he realized that we are most ourselves when most free to understand other people* / *the path is steepest here*.

3.6.5 If the group within which the comparison is made comprises only two possessors of the quality in question, there is vacillation between the superlative and the comparative; the latter now has a formal air: *she had wished her husband to receive a settlement of £50,000 a year; he was allowed only £30,000. . . . Sir Robert Peel had had the effrontery to vote for the smaller sum* / *Critics have observed that considerable writers fall into two classes—1) Those who start with their heads full of great ideas . . . 2) Those who begin with love of expression . . . it is fashionable just now to account Class 1 the more respectable* / *she could not quite decide which was the handsomer of the two* (Lytton Strachey: *Queen Victoria*) // *she turned from the Bill to the explanation . . . she could not decide which was the most confusing* (idem) / *to put one's best foot foremost* / *which is the longest of these two pencils*.—Compare also: *he gives the greater part of his time to business* and *he spent the best part of three days there*.—Note also that *the former* and *the latter*, when both points are mentioned, are beginning to be replaced by *the first* and *the second* in the more easy style: *over-excitement and boredom are states of mind which I equally shun, the first by never allowing myself to get over-excited and the second by never allowing myself to feel bored*.

3.6.6 The absolute superlative, i.e. the superlative used without the idea of comparison, simply meaning that the possessor has the quality to a high degree, is usually expressed by *most* + the positive, even when the adjective belongs to the types commonly compared with suffixes. When used in this combination there is no stress on *most*, a point that distinguishes absolute superlative expressions both from superlative expressions used for comparison, and from phrases with *most* as an adjective; compare: *my cousin and his most re'markable wife* with *his 'most remarkable book*, and *they are most re'spectable people* with *'most respectable people would have done the same*.

Examples: *Maugham impresses us as a most accomplished representative of the old objective school / everybody was most friendly and kind / Granville-Barker is one of the few stage experts who often failed when he wrote for the stage. Yet his failure is most instructive to the students of literature.*

The synthetic superlative form is also found with an absolute value in lively and emotional language; the superlative then has primary stress, and the stressed vowel is often lengthened: *in the 'brutalest manner*.—Examples: *his big hand could do the finest work / this is the greatest injustice / the letter met with the warmest reception / he asked England to pray that the illustrious Princess who had just ascended the throne with the purest intentions and the justest desires might see slavery abolished, crime diminished . . .*

The Position of the Adjective

3.7.1 Most adjectives are to be found in the three chief usages of this part of speech, viz. as an attributive adjective preceding or following the noun it qualifies, and as a predicative complement: *an insane man / he behaved like a man insane / he is insane*. Of the two main adjectival values, the descriptive and the limiting (see 3.1.4), the former may belong to adjectives in all three positions, while the latter belongs primarily to adjectives used attributively. Certain adjectives however do not have all three usages, and some differ considerably as to content in the different usages.

3.7.2 Adjectives used (only) attributively:

(1) Adjectives ending in *-ic* and *-ical*. As one of the differences between these two groups of adjectives is that those of the former type have a limiting value and those of the latter a descriptive value, it is to be expected, in accordance with the above, that adjectives in *-ic* should be used attributively; only a few of these however are used solely in this way: *arithmetic, lyric, stoic, theoretic*, etc.: *a lyric poet / the stoic virtues* (compare *he was quite lyrical / they were stoical about the bombings*).—In most cases of adjectives in *-ic* and *-ical* the distinction is less clear, the former having other uses besides the attributive; this applies to *academic, comic, mystic*, and others.

(2) Those adjectives ending in *-en* which are still used of 'material': *an earthen jar / the artist conjectures new things behind the fleshen mask of the familiar model's face / woollen socks / wooden shoes*. As predicative complement the corresponding concept is expressed by *of* + noun: *these articles are of wood*.—Most of the adjectives in *-en* are however used figuratively, and have a descriptive value; these are of course used both predicatively and attributively (even a few of those mentioned above may be found—though not often—used predicatively, with a figurative value): *her face turned ashen at the news / she wished her hair was flaxen / the evening* (i.e. of her life) *had been golden // the Wilhelmstrasse is wooden in its methods*.

(3) The adjectival past participle forms *drunken, shrunken, sunken*: *a drunken man / shrunken limbs / the stooping back, the sunken head* (see further 1.2.6).

(4) The comparatives mentioned in 3.3.5, *inner*, *outer*, etc.: *the upper hand*, and a number of Latin comparatives, e.g. *major*, *minor*, *exterior*, *interior*, *ulterior*: *ulterior motives*.—*Inferior*, *superior*, *junior*, *senior* are however also used as predicative complements: *every member, no matter how junior his position, should play a part . . .*

(5) The adjectives *joint*, *live*, *very*, and the rhetorical *lone*: *joint efforts / in this very room / keep clear of the live rail on the Electric Underground / the bounding-down of a live human being* (cf. the corresponding predicative expression *be alive*) / *to play a lone hand / Great was his courage. He stood, a lone, harried protestant in the House of Commons against the bombing of Cologne* (cf. *be alone*).

3.7.3 If several adjectives precede the noun to which they are attached, the descriptive adjectives precede the limiting: *a naughty little boy / a nervous young man / a beautiful French girl*. But since many adjectives may have both values their order can vary according to the context. We normally say *a living vertebrate animal*, since *vertebrate* is essentially an adjective indicating a category; but the word order can be changed: *vivisection means generally the infliction of real and serious suffering on a vertebrate living animal*, since *living* is here a more or less obvious attribute of *animal*, while the point to be stressed is *vertebrate* (i.e. 'even such highly-developed animals as . . .'). Often the content in this respect of a series of adjectives is of the same value so that another order could equally well have been chosen: *presently the sudden, near, loud cry of a carrion-crow flying to the wood startled the blackbird*.

Adjectives denoting size precede adjectives denoting form, and these in turn precede adjectives denoting other qualities; thus the normal form of expression is: *a large, thick, sweet pancake / a tall, thin, swarthy man*.

The adjectives *little* and *old* are often closely associated with the succeeding noun, so that other adjectives precede them: *a brave little woman / a rich old man*. But they are separated from the noun by adjectives denoting colour, material, or nationality, and as regards the mutual relation of these two adjectives, *little* precedes *old*.—For example: *The little red town was buddled down in the valley / old wooden furniture / a charming little Italian girl / we passed through the grave-yard of the little old Coton church*.

3.7.4 The post-positive adjective is seldom limiting; a number of Romance adjectives are however used in this way, mainly in stock

expressions: *beir apparent, bride elect, knight-errant, time immemorial, devil incarnate, Poet Laureate, court martial, letters patent, body politic, Queen Regnant, Lords Spiritual / Temporal*, etc.—Examples with other adjectives: *the dog sat over the ball in the attitude of a lion couchant / a final appeal to the House of Lords is available only when the Attorney-General certifies that the case involves a point of law of exceptional public importance / There has been an Astronomer Royal for two hundred and fifty years, but there is no Physicist Royal or Bacteriologist Royal*. For the plural of these combinations, see 2.2.10.

In formal English the post-positive adjective with a limiting value is furthermore to be found in the subdivision of a category: *you'll find it classified under the following three heads: Intelligence, Human; Intelligence, Animal; Intelligence, Military. My stepfather's a perfect specimen of Intelligence, Military / he had no thought to spare for problems academic / every government—monarchic, aristocratic, popular—is a system of injunctions and restraints / bicycles, new or second-hand, were within most workers' means*.—This word order is often found in combinations with the colourless words *things* and *matters*: *her predilection for things French came from childish recollections of schooldays in Paris / he has been careful to show a proper impartiality in matters party political*.

3.7.5 But normally the post-positive adjective is descriptive; compare *they ate a whole ox at a sitting* and *they roasted an ox whole / it is still a live issue* and *the BBC televised the event live*. The post-positive adjective is found particularly in the following cases:

(1) When two or more co-ordinate descriptive adjectives are attached to a noun; note that the adjectives used separately would be pre-positive: *he was a big man, square-shouldered and virile / a laugh musical but malicious / an expedient both permissible and good*. When less emphasized however the adjectives precede the noun: *to the pattern of the play the component scenes contribute essential and detachable parts*.

(2) When qualifications of some length are attached to an adjective: *The Speaker, truly majestic in full-bottom wig, made his immemorial procession to the Chamber / arrangements have been made to provide collectors with specimens post-marked on the first day of issue / a few traditional trends peculiar to this country have survived intact*.—Certain adjectives, such as *last, next, different*, are however generally pre-positive, even though the qualifications

attached to the adjective come after the noun: *the last house but one / the very next night to the one I am telling of / a different project from the one I know of*.—Particularly to be noted is the combination of *too, so, as* + adj. with its complementary phrase; here both word orders are to be found, with only a slight difference in content: *too large an apartment for two people / an apartment too large for two people // women are eligible for the voluntary services at so early an age as sixteen / this is a most absurd thing for a man with a wife so good as Sylvia // the operation will make a wild monkey as gentle a creature as the organ grinder's monkey / we ought to make dusting a task as amusing as that of turning out masterpieces in marble*. The difference is that the construction in which the whole adjectival phrase is post-positive expresses only a high degree of the quality denoted by the adjective, while the expression with the pre-positive adjective stresses the specific degree expressed by the complementary phrase.

(3) Participles are often post-positive, with the verbal aspect of their content stressed: *all men living / the sum added* (the value is roughly that of a relative sentence), while in the pre-positive position the stress is often on the adjectival aspect of the content: *within living memory / an added value*.—For example: *we find no rational analysis of the situation. This is due to a vast ignorance of the issues involved* (cp. *his involved style has led to much misunderstanding*) / *in this book only can you hope to hunt him* (i.e. the author) *down, and catch him with his character unmasked* (cp. *an universal suppression of the truths . . . and the unmasked substitution of falsehood* (Oxf. Eng. Dict.)) / *any pieces of meat not wanted were tossed to the dogs* (cp. *portraits of wanted persons*). The difference between the pre-positive and the post-positive participle may however also be slight, so that the position of the participle is determined by considerations of euphony, especially rhythm: *A queer misalliance between the seen fact and the subconscious symbol / her travels to Paris and the then undiscovered Pyrenees, to Montpellier and a Nice as yet unspoiled / generations yet unborn*.

(4) Adjectives ending in *-ble* can be post-positive, especially if they have a verbal association; they very often follow a noun with a superlative or *only* or a similar adjunct attached: *the best type of government imaginable / the only person visible / all problems soluble*. But otherwise these adjectives are normally pre-positive: *a remarkable achievement / some valuable light / undetachable parts*.

Adjectives may be placed in post-position in order to avoid difficulty in number: *one of the best poems, if not the best.*

Note *God Almighty*, by analogy with Latin: *God Almighty grant me patience!*

3.7.6 A number of adjectives are found only in apposition and as predicative complement, and not in attributive use. This applies to:

A number of adjectives with the prefix *a-* (most of them were originally prepositional phrases, and the *a-* is a weakened form of *on*).—Examples of the commonest are: *I worked astern to get the boat afloat* (attributively, the same concept is expressed by *floating*: *a floating crane*) / *she was afraid* (cf. *a frightened look*) / *his story left me agast* (cf. *her terrified countenance*) / *pity is akin to love* (cf. *kindred sentiments*) / *he left the candle alight* (cf. *a lighted candle*) / *no two persons are exactly alike* (cf. *in like manner* / *of uniform length*) / *he is alone in the house* (*a solitary old man*; for *lone* see 3.7.2, conclusion) / *what is amiss in her dress* / *he was ashamed to tell us that he had failed* / *how long could he have been asleep?* (cf. *the Sleeping Beauty*) / *is he awake?* (cf. *the waking state*) / *he was aware of the danger.*

The adjectives *poorly* and *well*. These cannot be used attributively in British English: *he is poorly* (the corresponding attributive expression is e.g. *an ailing child*) / *medical examinations, both for those who were well and for those who were sick, were arranged at regular intervals* (cf. *healthy children*).—In American *well* is also used attributively: *a well baby*.

The archaic adjective *meet*: *dressed as a prosperous British merchant should be, in a tall hat and all things meet.*

3.7.7 Since the pre-positive adjective often has a limiting value (indicating a category), while adjectives used in apposition and as predicative complement are normally descriptive, we frequently find that the same adjective has different meanings according to its position; cf. *a fast train* with *trains are fast nowadays* // *the little toe* / *we feel so helpless and so little in the great stillness* // *perfect silence* / *he is perfect*. As mentioned before however the pre-positive adjective may also have a descriptive value: *this is not a very fast train*, and the adjective in apposition, or forming a predicative complement, a limiting value: *I saw by the visitors' book that you were English*, so that in general we cannot simply link an adjective's meaning with

its position. But in some cases this can be done; a number of these are mentioned below.

3.7.8 *above* (which on grounds of content is best classified under adverbs (see 4.1.1 ff.)): *her room is just above / appeal to the courts above / the Powers Above / the examples above*, may also be found—with the value ‘mentioned above’, seen in the last example—as an attributive adjective in formal English: *the above statement / examples / facts*, etc.—This usage is not accepted by some grammarians (e.g. Partridge: *Usage and Abusage* p. 10).

alive in the sense ‘lively’ is used attributively: *she had a most alive mind*; otherwise this adjective is used only in apposition and as predicative complement: *he is the greatest man alive / the fish is still alive* (the corresponding concept is attributively expressed by *live*: *live cattle*).

apparent (1) = ‘seeming’ when used attributively: *on closer examination the reason for the apparent contradiction becomes obvious*; (2) = ‘evident’ when used as a predicative complement: *the importance of these industries is not apparent from a bare enumeration of figures*.

born: as an adjective, *born* shows a tendency towards distinction between: (1) the literal sense ‘by birth’, when used post-positively: *he was a nobleman born / a lady born / a beggar born*; (2) a metaphorical sense, when pre-positive, to express a high degree of the quality expressed by the noun: *he is a born swordsman / poet / fool*.—E.g. *he was not only a waggoner born, his father having been one before him, but he was also a born organizer*.

due (1) in the sense ‘suitable’, ‘right’, is pre-positive: *after due consideration, he accepted the position*; (2) in the sense ‘payable’, or ‘appointed to arrive’ this adjective is used in apposition or as predicative complement: *he demanded the money due / when is the train due?*—*due* (+ *to*) to denote cause is found only as predicative complement: *this attitude is due to a vast ignorance of the issues involved*.

glad = ‘pleased’ is predicative: *my wife was glad that I had come* (attributively the corresponding concept is expressed by *happy*: *she was in a happy mood*); in the sense ‘containing or causing gladness’ it is used attributively: *Will generations yet unborn look back to the glad age when a watcher on the Yangtze might have seen old Mao rising from the sea, while Chou En-lai blew his wreathed horn?*

ill meaning ‘unwell’ is used only in apposition and as predicative complement: *here was a child ill with typhoid fever / before the Prince*

had been ill many days, he was convinced that he would not recover. Attributively, the corresponding concept is expressed by *sick*: *he is a sick man* (for *sick* see below).—Used attributively, *ill* means 'bad', and is found only in a number of stock expressions, e.g. *ill fame* / *ill health* / *ill luck* / *ill will* / *a psychologist condemned fairy stories as likely to have an ill effect on children's minds* / *it's an ill wind that blows nobody good*; *ill* in the sense 'unwell' used attributively is extremely rare: *he was an ill man and a very old man then. He could scarce climb to the platform* (W. R. Titterton: G. K. Chesterton).

opposite can when combined with a plural noun express a reciprocal concept; it is then pre-positive: *they stood on opposite sides of the road* / *they belong to opposite parties* / *they walked in opposite directions*; pre-positive use of this adjective could in other cases be said to express a latent reciprocal concept, e.g. in phrases such as: *the farmers had opposite interests to those of the workers* / *the other party walked in the opposite direction* / *the fire was on the opposite bank of the river*, where one member of the reciprocal relation is added or implicit. But post-positive *opposite* has no reciprocal association in itself: thus *the window opposite* does not imply that there are two windows, as does *the opposite window*; similarly: *Few survived to enter the trenches opposite*, i.e. *opposite us*, not necessarily *opposite our trenches*.

proper in the sense 'according to strict definition' follows the noun: *Egypt proper* / *shellfish do not belong to the fishes proper*.—In the sense 'suitable' or 'right' the word has the usual possibilities of descriptive adjectives: *after a proper interval the dog surrendered the ball* / *he made a few remarks proper to the occasion* / *I do not think it proper*.

present in the sense 'existing now' is pre-positive only: *the present king* / *the present plan*; in the sense 'being in the place referred to' it is used in post-position or as a predicative complement: *the Cabinet Ministers present will agree* / *we were present at the wedding*.

sorry meaning 'pitiful' is attributive: *a sorry performance* / *he came to a sorry end*; in the sense 'grieved', 'unhappy (about)' it is predicative: *I feel sorry for you* / *he said he was sorry* (the corresponding concept is expressed attributively by *sad*: *sad looks*).

sick used attributively means 'unwell': *a sick man* (the corresponding concept is expressed predicatively by *ill* (see above) or *unwell*: *on his return, Prince Albert felt thoroughly unwell*.—In American *sick* is common in this position); used predicatively it means 'suffering from nausea', 'vomiting': *my first cigar made me sick*.

square in most of its senses has the usual possibilities of adjectives as regards position: *a square box* / *draw one line square to another* / *this corner is not exactly square*; but when combined with terms of measurement, the value of the adjective varies according to its position before or after the noun; *the area is two square feet* refers to the size of the area, *the area is two feet square* refers to its shape.

ADVERBS

4.1.1 As mentioned under adjectives, the boundary between these and adverbs is very difficult to define. The adverbial suffix *-ly* may indeed serve in a large number of cases: *she sat erectly / her eyes were deeply set*, but as a criterion it is insufficient since many words have the same form adjectivally and adverbially: *how long have you waited? / a long time // far away / the Far East // early in life / an early breakfast // once only / an only child*; and in some cases the addition of *-ly* to an adjective forms both an adverb, and a new adjective: *kind words / to speak kindly / a kindly heart // a weak defence / a weakly held position / a weakly child*. Thus also *sickly, deadly, lowly*.

4.1.2 The function of the adverb is to be a subjunct (subordinate qualifier) of a sentence, a verb, an adjective, or another adverb: *luckily he did not die / they must be heartily congratulated / I'm awfully sorry / that is nearly always the case*. But adjectives often have a function approaching that of an adverb, e.g. *a dark blue dress* (see below, 4.4.2) / *he spelt the word wrong* (see 4.4.1), so that function is likewise an insufficient criterion in distinguishing between these two parts of speech.

4.1.3 As regards content, adverbs differ considerably; it would be difficult to find a common denominator for such words as *not, only, sweetly, then, twice*. But adverbs can be classified into main types according to their similarity in content to other parts of speech: *here, where, there, then*, etc. are, like pronouns, 'outline words', whose factual content is gained from the situation or context;—*down, in, opposite, since*, etc., which denote relations of place or time, are adverbs or prepositions, all according to whether they lack or possess a complement: *the ship went down / he went down the street // he is in / he is in the house*;—*diligently, seriously, slowly*, which are descriptive adverbs, approach the corresponding adjectives in content, and like these can be compared. The resemblance in content can be clearly seen from the fact that the same reality can often be expressed by the adjective as well as the adverb: *a serious wound / seriously wounded*.—A particularly striking point in this connection

is that we often find that what we would expect to find expressed by an adverb whose content would modify a whole sentence, has been replaced by an adjective modifying one of the members of the sentence: *His friends shrugged cynical shoulders / he pays us occasional visits.*

4.2.1 Adverbs are compared by means of the suffixes *-(e)r*, *-(e)st*, or by *more*, *most* along the lines described under adjectives (3.3.1 ff.): *can you open your mouth still wider? / he got up earlier than usual / the depression bore less hardly on the Whigs / the young birds are becoming more easily definable as characters.* There is however the difference, that disyllabic adverbs formed by the addition of *-ly* are not normally compared by means of suffixes (as are adjectives with the corresponding phonetic construction): *more wisely said / more softly nurtured*; cf. *an earlier visit*.—Note also that *often* and *seldom* are commonly found with both types of comparison: *he really must come oftener / more often than not.* (From the rules laid down for adjectives we would not expect comparison with a suffix.)

4.2.2 An apparent irregularity in the comparison of adverbs arises from the fact that in the cases where adverbs without the suffix *-ly* in the positive are giving way to the regular formation with the suffix (4.4.1) the old comparative form has often survived better than the positive: *my twin laughed loudly when she told me how she did the cooking / she laughed louder than anyone could have expected // she went quickly out of the room / taxis went quicker, saved time, and, besides, that hole in the top of a hansom was a fool of a thing.*

4.3.1 Adverbs are most commonly formed from adjectives simply by adding *-ly*: *fine—finely / serious—seriously*. Changes take place in the adjective in the following cases:

Orthographical changes:

In the case of adjectives ending in *-y* the adverb is formed with *-ily* if the *-y* follows a consonant: *happy—happily*; after a vowel the *-y* is retained: *coy—coily*. A number of adverbs however do not obey this rule: *gay—gaily* or *gayly / shy—shyly / sly—slyly / dry—dryly*.

-e is dropped in *due* and *true*: *duly, truly*; also in *whole*, adv. *wholly*.

-le with syllabic value in adjectives is replaced by *-ly*: *noble—nobly / simple—simply / notable—notably*.

Adverbs corresponding to adjectives ending in *-ll* have *-lly*: *full-fully* / *dull-dully*.

Phonetic changes:

Final dark /l/ with syllabic value is lost before the adverbial ending: *simple* /simpl/—*simply* /simpli/.—In the monosyllabic adjectives *vile*, *sole*, *dull*, *cool* the final /l/ is retained before the adverbial suffix, which therefore has a long /l/: *vilely*, *solely*; *dully*, *coolly*—/vailli/, etc. *Full*, on the other hand, loses its /l/, *fully* being pronounced /fuli/;—*wholly* is pronounced in both ways /houli/ and /houlli/.

The pronunciation /d/ or /t/ of the suffix *-ed* in past participles and adjectives changes to /id/: *assuredly* /ə'sʊəridli/, *fixedly* /fiksɪdli/; but not if the ending *-ed* follows an unstressed syllable: *good-naturedly* /gud'neɪtʃədli/, *determinedly* /dɪ'tɜːmindli/.

The adjectives *content* and *offband* (the latter may also be an adverb) and the longer adjective forms *contented*, *offbanded* have only one adverbial form each: *contentedly*, *offbandedly* respectively: *his off-band manner* / *he answered a little off-bandedly*.

The adjectives *politic* and *public* have regular corresponding adverbs: *politically*, *publicly*, but the remaining adjectives in *-ic* have corresponding adverbs in *-ically*, whether the adjective variant in *-ical* is common or not: *drastically*, *majestically*, *systematically*.

4.3.2 In some cases *-s* is the adverbial suffix: *a backward movement* / *walk backwards* // *a forward march* / *move backwards and forwards* / *he was by no means unaware of the fact* / *he was caught unawares*.

-ways and *-wise* are used as suffixes to form a number of adverbs, and are added to words of different parts of speech; of these two, *-wise* is still active. Examples: *he looked sideways at her* / *I couldn't get a word in edgeways* / *endways*, *lengthways* // *he was otherwise engaged* / *place the sticks crosswise* / *edgewise*, *endwise*.

In many cases a prepositional expression replaces an adverb: *he still walks with difficulty* (*difficultly* is now rare: *that . . . acrobatic style . . . makes him . . . difficultly readable* (Somerset Maugham: *Points of View* p. 248)) / *he acted with amazing speed* / *he came in person* / *he never performed in public* / *he acted on principle*; expressions with *in a . . . way* or *. . . manner* are particularly common: *do it in a different way* / *he acted in a strange manner* / *he told the story in a matter-of-fact way* (*matter-of-factly* is infrequent: *'Paphos', I said to the chauffeur, as matter-of-factly as in more familiar*

surroundings one would say 'Selfridge's . . .' (Aldous Huxley : Adonis and the Alphabet p. 218)).

Expressions with *way* and *fashion* without a preposition may also be substituted for an adverb: *do it this way* / *bird-lovers will wish to own the book anyway* / *joined to us Siamese-twin fashion, was a group of men and women . . .*

4.3.3 A difficult question concerning adverbs is the extent to which the adverbs formed from adjectives have the suffix *-ly*. A development is taking place in the direction of *-ly* as the general adverbial ending; most adverbs have reached this final stage, but a number have not yet acquired the suffix, and a group is still at some point of the development, so that some adverbs occur both with and without the suffix. The use of the two forms in this group depends in some cases on semantic distinctions, in others the form without the suffix is now found only in stock expressions.—The most important adverbs having double forms are discussed below (4.4.1).

4.3.4 Adverbs always identical with the corresponding adjectives are:

(1) *far, fast, little, long, much, straight, well*, etc.—Examples: *the towers of Ely Cathedral loomed like specks on the far horizon* / *she travelled far in search of happiness* // *a straight line* / *go straight in* / *his wife at home doesn't play straight* (cf. however 4.4.1) // *it was well to have from the Prime Minister himself a calm and realistic appreciation of recent events* / *these colours go well together*;

(2) a number of words indicating time, ending in *-ly*: *early, hourly, daily, weekly*, etc.: *an hourly service of trains* / *the medicine should be taken hourly*;

(3) furthermore *deathly, leisurely, masterly, only*, etc.: *a deathly stillness* / *he was deathly pale* // *leisurely movements* / *to work leisurely* // *he is the only man* / *once only I went absent-mindedly into his shop*. Most other adjectives in *-ly* are found with the adverbial suffix: *it is a pity that the tale of the singular life so livelily and carefully unfolded should be strangely devoid of an equally penetrating understanding* / *Jeremy sat in a misery of embarrassment, sicklily smiling*; but the substitution of a prepositional phrase is common: *in a friendly manner* / *in a lively way*.—Note that *purposely* is only adverbial: *he purposely waylaid her*.

4.4.1 The use of adverbial forms with and without -ly:

cheap(ly): without the suffix when combined with *buy*, *sell*, *get*, if the adverb is used literally, and these verbs have a perfective association: *we got the house cheap*. Otherwise with the suffix: *they could travel cheaply to see the exhibition / we have bought cheaply on this trip* (with a durative association = 'to shop') / *they got me cheaply enough* (Kipling: *The Light that Failed*).

clean(ly): lacks the suffix in the sense 'entirely': *I clean forgot to ask / the bullet went clean through his shoulder*; it has the suffix in the sense 'in a clean manner': *she works cleanly / to live cleanly*.

clear(ly): without the suffix in the sense 'right', before prepositions and adverbs: *the bullet went clear through the door / the prisoner got clear away*; with the suffix in the sense 'in a clear manner': *speak clearly / I heard it clearly / to state something clearly / I clearly understood what he said*.

close(ly): without the suffix this is used of degree ('near', 'quite'): *he followed close behind / close to the station / he came close and looked me over / the room was shut up close / she drew her wrapper close round her shoulders / the world is evil, and this novelist holds its diverse disgusting smells close up under our noses*; with the suffix, it is descriptive: *watch him closely / he resembled his father closely / we studied the map closely / closely followed by the rest of the party / I followed this program closely / more closely than ever did she cleave to the side of her friend*.

dead(ly): although both forms are used as intensive adverbs: *dead tired / deadly pale*, we have here a case not of an adjective used unchanged as an adverb beside a form with an adverbial suffix, but of two adjectives used unchanged as adverbs, both with an intensive value. Of the two, *deadly* is the less faded, in that it still has a certain association of 'that may end in death'.—Examples: *the wind was dead against us / the play was deadly dull*.—The phrase *deadly tired* is thus stronger than *dead tired*.

dear(ly): without the suffix when combined with verbs such as *buy*, *cost*, *pay*, *sell*, in the literal sense concerning price: *if you want to make money, you must buy cheap and sell dear*; both forms are

used figuratively, the regular form predominating: *he paid dear(ly) for the error / this will cost you dear / the all-round wage increase has cost the community dearly / they sold their lives dearly*; metaphorically (of degree), only *dearly*: *he would dearly love to see his mother again*.

deep(ly): without the suffix when used literally and figuratively, with the suffix used metaphorically of degree: *dig deep / bury deep / sink deep / his hands were stuck deep into his pockets // the springs of his sensibility, bidden deep within him, were overflowing / if one looked deeper, one saw at once that he was not ordinary // she was deeply in love / he is deeply offended / solidarity represents a real and deeply felt article of trade union faith*.

direct(ly): without the suffix the adverb denotes the direction of a movement, and is often used with verbs such as *go, come, send*; used figuratively, it is seldom without -ly: *they went direct to London / he flew direct to New York / I went there direct / send the box direct to me // some words have been adopted from the native languages, either direct or through Portuguese*.—Otherwise *directly* is used both of direction, and in the sense 'without an intermediate link', and of time; for the last value the form with the suffix is always used: *this is the first time for 100 years that Moors have come directly from Mecca to Spain / the shell was coming directly towards me // he looked directly at me / he spoke directly to me // the Tories directly thwarted her / directly involved / directly affected // directly after breakfast / the book was suppressed directly (when) it appeared*.

due, duly: *due* is used in the sense 'exactly' before the points of the compass: *they sailed due north*; *duly* in the sense 'properly', 'punctually': *he was duly punished / the rent was duly paid*.

easy, easily: without the suffix only in certain combinations, all of a colloquial nature: *just go easy! / take it easy!*; otherwise *easily*: *I could do it easily*.

fair(ly): without the suffix this adverb cannot precede the verb, even though modifying it: *you must fight fair*.—*Fair* as an adverb is used partly in senses corresponding to those of the adjective in combinations such as *play fair, fight fair / copy a letter out fair*, partly with

a merely intensive value in the combinations: *promise fair, bid fair: Rotterdam bids fair to rival her sister, Amsterdam*;—*fairly* is the normal form of the adverb in senses corresponding to those of the adjective: *he judged fairly between them / they were treated fairly*. In addition, *fairly* is used 1) as an intensive adverb, being here emphasized by stress and intonation: *he was fairly beside himself with rage* and 2) as a 'downtoner' (without full stress): *we could see fairly well from there*.

false(ly): without the suffix only in a few stock expressions: *play somebody false*; otherwise the full adverbial form: *act falsely / swear falsely*.

flat(ly): in the sense 'absolutely', 'unequivocally' both forms may be used, placed after the verb: *the union leaders have just turned the idea down flat(ly) / she told him flat(ly) that she wouldn't go*.—Used otherwise, only *flatly*: *she flatly refused to go*.

free(ly): without the suffix = 'without payment': *all members admitted free*; with *-ly* = 'unchecked' (with different shades of meaning): *the blood flowed freely / to criticize freely / the right of thinking freely*.

full(y): *full* is now adverbial only in a few stock expressions: *look somebody full in the face*; otherwise the form with the suffix is used: *I am fully satisfied*.

hard(ly): *hard* is used as an intensive adverb: *blow / drink / pull / study / think / work (etc.) hard / it rained hard last night / he followed hard on my heels* / (formally) *hard by*; also with an association of difficulty or pain: *prejudices die hard / he was hard hit / taxation bears hard on the poor*; *hardly* is occasionally found with the latter value: *the depression bore less hardly on the Whigs / his hardly earned reputation*;—*hardly* is generally used either in the sense 'in an unjustly hard manner': *the Dominions felt that they were being hardly treated / If God is Universal Truth, he cannot look hardly upon us / he was hardly used*; or in the sense 'barely': *I could hardly understand him / we hardly ever go there*.

high(ly): in the literal and figurative senses *high* is used: *the ball did not fly high into the air / churches perched high and nobly over the smoke / his rage flamed high / you pay your men too high /*

passions ran *high* / sing *high* / play *high*; —*highly* is used of degree: *he is highly pleased* / *the first highly favourable impression was never afterwards belied* / *it became highly doubtful how much longer the government could survive*, and with an association of 'excellence' (+ degree): *he was both highly descended and highly educated* / *his services are highly paid* / *I esteem him highly* / *he is highly recommended* / *I never thought highly of him*.

jolly, jollily: *jolly* can be used as an intensive adverb in slang: *this is jolly awful* / *you know jolly well*; *jollily* corresponds in content to the adjective *jolly*: *he smiled jollily enough*.

just(ly): *just* is used in the senses 'very recently', 'exactly', 'barely', 'only': *he has just arrived* / *I have only just enough money for the trip* / *just come here a moment*, while *justly* corresponds in content to the adjective *just*, i.e. 'with justice', 'rightly': *he was justly pardoned*.

large(ly): the adverb is found without the suffix only in a few stock expressions: *taking it by and large . . .*; otherwise *largely*: *it is largely a question of energy*.

late(ly): = 'after the proper time' without the suffix: *he arrived late*; = 'recently' with the suffix: *I have not seen him lately*.

loud(ly): in the literal sense (of the loudness of sound) *loud* can be used in combination with certain verbs (*laugh, read, sing, speak, talk*): *don't talk so loud* / *speak as loud as you can* / *she laughed aloud, and louder than anyone could have expected*, but even with these verbs the form with the suffix is common, and with other verbs only *loudly* is used, this being also the only form used figuratively and metaphorically: *he laughed loudly* / *it was an outrage, and they said so, more and more loudly* / *he protested loudly* / *next come the 'Emotionalists' with Mr John Osborne loudly in the limelight* / *he was loudly dressed*.

low(ly): the use of these two adverbial forms corresponds roughly to that of the adverbs *dead* and *deadly*, i.e. they correspond respectively to the adjectives *low* and *lowly*: *aim, bend, bow, play, shoot, sing, speak, talk* (etc.) *low* / *the naughty boy, noticing that his kind grandmamma had suddenly turned into a most terrifying lady bowed*

very low indeed // he bowed lowly ('humbly'); but occasionally *lowly* is found as the adverb of *low*: *he spoke lowly* instead of the more common *in a low voice*. (In 'Usage and Abusage' Partridge advises against the use of the adverb *lowly* on account of the possible ambiguity.)

most(ly): In good English there is a clear distinction between these two forms: *most* means 'to the greatest extent': *he works most / the deity most worshipped at Thespiae was Eros*, while *mostly* means 'on the whole': *the literature of today is mostly pretty poor stuff*. Occasionally *mostly* is found used incorrectly in place of *most*: *the people mostly in need of assistance do not ask for it* (Oxf. Eng. Dict.).

near(ly): *near* is used of place and time: *he lives quite near / spring draws near*; *nearly* is used of degree (= 'almost'): *he walked nearly ten miles / he was nearly drowned / it is nearly nine o'clock*, and figuratively of distance: *the two boys nearly resembled each other / it touches some of us too nearly*. The use of *nearly* instead of *near* when speaking of place is unusual: *I step lightly and swiftly on the ball of the foot, raising each knee as nearly as possible to the chin*; *near* instead of *nearly* = 'almost' is old-fashioned: *my dear mother, whom I had near forgotten*.

pretty, prettily: the former is used of degree: *it is pretty early*, the latter is descriptive, and corresponds in content to the adjective *pretty*: *she is prettily dressed*.

quick(ly): the form without *-ly* is common in colloquial English: *come as quick as you can / you are walking too quick for me*; in more formal language this adverb always has the suffix: *even if General de Gaulle succeeds in establishing himself quickly, he will be preoccupied with Algeria and constitutional reform*.

right(ly): only *right* is used of degree, as an intensive adverb qualifying both adjectives (now only in some surviving stock expressions) and adverbs: *the Right Honourable / the Right Reverend // right now / put the vase right in the middle / go right on to the end of the road*.—(The adverb *right* = 'to the right' also invariably lacks the suffix: *we turned right and left*.)

In the sense 'justly', only *rightly* is used: *he rightly refused to answer / he is rightly considered one of the best / he said that rightly*.

In the sense 'correctly' both forms are found; before the verb only *rightly* is used: *he rightly guessed that she was fifty / she had been rightly informed*; both forms are found after the verb: *guess right(ly) / answer right(ly) / If I remember right(ly)*, the shorter form being the only possibility however in certain stock expressions: *it serves you right*, while the -ly form predominates when the adverb definitely describes verbal actions: *he acted rightly / he described her wrongly*. Compare furthermore what is said below concerning *wrong(ly)*.

rough(ly): the usual form is *roughly*, but *rough* is still possible in certain expressions: *he lived rough / I thought you were treating her rough*.

scarce(ly): this adverb is occasionally found without the suffix in a formal (or humorously formal) style: *now I come near to the time when I must bid good-bye to my friend . . . He was a very ill man . . . He could scarce climb to the platform / a benevolent grandfather holding out a harmless-looking tin money-box to an infant scarce able to walk*; normally only *scarcely* is used: *he could scarcely write his name*.

sharp(ly): in the sense 'punctually', of the exact hour, only the shorter form is used: *at 8 o'clock sharp*; in the sense 'abruptly', 'quickly', the shorter form is used in certain expressions: *look sharp! / pull up sharp*, but apart from these *sharply* is the commonest usage: *the road turns sharp(ly) to the left / he turned sharp(ly) round*.—In the sense 'severely', only *sharply* is used: *he was sharply criticized / sharply rebuked*.

short(ly): used without the suffix of distance and space of time: *the enemy fired short / 'How to Live Short'*, likewise figuratively: *it fell short of my expectations*; also in the sense 'suddenly and unexpectedly' in a number of expressions: *stop short / pull a horse up short / I cut him short*; *shortly* is used of point of time: *this happened shortly before the war / the guests will arrive shortly*, and in the sense '(unexpectedly) briefly': *to put it shortly / he answered me very shortly*.

slow(ly): in colloquial English *slow* can be used in the literal sense: *DRIVE SLOW / he drove dead slow round the corner*, but in more

formal language it has been replaced in this sense by *slowly*: *the animals came slowly towards the gate / night fell slowly on the drear expanse of white / slowly but surely*; *slow* has on the other hand been retained in the figurative usage: *when he saw that the case demanded it, he could go slow—very slow indeed*.

sound(ly): *sound* is still found as an intensive adverb in *sound asleep* and is still possible in *sleep sound*: *he slept sound while I lay awake fretting*; apart from this, its place has been taken by the regular form: *he slept soundly / I beat him soundly*.

square(ly): *square* is used for the intensive value: *I hit him square on the jaw*, and the same form has been preserved in the expression *fair and square*: *he always played fair and square*; otherwise the adverb is *squarely*: *he faced me squarely / they treated him squarely*.

straight(ly): *straight* is the common form in both the literal and the figurative usage: *the smoke rises straight upwards / go straight in / tell me straight what you think*; but *straightly* is also found, though infrequently: *the rusted iron that led so straightly upwards*.

thick(ly): *thick* is used, after the verb, to indicate degree: *the trunks of beeches were coated thick with snow / the snow is falling thick / don't spread the butter too thick*; thus in the expression *thick and fast*: *the blows were falling thick and fast*; otherwise *thickly*: *he spoke thickly / the furniture was thickly covered with dust*.

true, truly: the adverb *true* can occur with a few verbs: *tell me true*, but apart from these the form with the suffix is used: *he spoke truly*.

wide(ly): with the literal value, *wide* is common: *her eyes were wide open / open your mouth wide / search far and wide / he is wide awake*; metaphorically, *widely* is used: *they differ widely in opinions / they are widely different*; but the form with *-ly* is now often used in the literal sense also: *the horny pupa had begun to split. Each time the full-grown insect struggled, its case of amber-coloured chitin opened a little more widely / Heaven opened its gates widely. There was spring in my heart*.

wrong(ly): the form without the suffix has maintained its position in certain expressions: *all his plans went wrong / you are treating*

him all wrong; there is vacillation between the two forms however in cases such as: *answer, guess, judge, vote* (etc.) *wrong(ly)*. This holds good both of 1) cases where *wrong(ly)* is attached to one of these verbs: *you've guessed wrong(ly)*, and of 2) cases where *wrong(ly)* follows one of these verbs + object (as well as in the corresponding passive construction), e.g. *he did his sums wrong(ly) / you pronounced that word wrong(ly) / he spelt the name wrong(ly) // the word is spelt wrong(ly)*. In both these types the best English makes use of *wrong*, and the -ly form must be described as the result of a mistaken attempt at correctness. In the cases concerned here, *wrong* has a value not altogether adverbial; in the first type *wrong* does not describe the action expressed by *guessed*, but might be said to be attached as predicative complement to an unexpressed resultative object of *guessed*: *you've guessed (a figure (or the like) that is) wrong*; similarly, *wrong* in the second type is a description not of the manner of the verbal action, but of its result; *wrong* might therefore be said to be the predicative complement of the object: *he did his sums (so that they were) wrong* (cf. 4.5.4).—If the word cannot be given an adjectival value of this kind, but can only be regarded as attached to the verb, only *wrongly* is used: *They interpreted the law wrongly / he speaks wrongly / wrongly spelt words / the words were wrongly spelt / several wrongly done sums / you have been wrongly informed*.

4.4.2 In addition to the cases mentioned in the preceding section (e.g. *dead tired, wide awake*, etc.), the form without the suffix is not infrequently found as an indication of degree in expressions such as *bitter-sweet, full-ripe, red hot, stark mad* (naked, etc.); this is used rather more often in colloquial and vulgar speech than in more formal English: *mighty fine / precious little money // a mortal lazy fellow*.

This usage is particularly common in the case of 1) words ending in -y: *fiery red, icy cold, worldly-wise*; 2) present participle forms: *biting cold, burning hot, soaking wet*; 3) words denoting shades of colour: *dark brown, greyish green, pale blue*.

The use of the form with the suffix in these cases is unusual: *his darkly brown face / the palely blue sky*.

4.4.3 When adverbial forms without the suffix modify participle forms: *tight-fitting / his eyes were deep-set / a new-born baby / a quick-set hedge*, they are often interchangeable with, or more correctly, approximate in content to, adverbial forms with the suffix:

tightly fitting clothes / his eyes were very deeply set / a newly married couple; in general, a participle form combined with an adverb with the suffix has a definitely more verbal value, while a participle combined with the adverb without the suffix has the adjectival value, cf. *full-grown lambs / a postjuvenile dress of feathers comes when the young birds are fully grown*.

4.4.4 There is often vacillation between the adjectival form and the adverbial form in cases where a combination of adj. + noun is given the adjectival ending *-ed*: *he is a serious-minded young man / Englishmen, being for the most part mechanically minded, have for long sought atomic models which they could understand // a full-flavoured cigar / the fifth of the young swallows was more fully coloured than the rest // a gentle-mannered lad / the most sweetly mannered gentleman alive*.

4.4.5 Note the use of adverbs before substantives functioning as attributive adjectives: *it would be a purely business arrangement / they wanted to make of Czechoslovakia a completely vassal state / in the wholly cotton yarns, the most important development has been the great extension of the use of Deltapine cottons*. Cf. **3.1.4** conclusion.

4.5.1 Adjectival and adverbial forms may alternate in very similar contexts for various syntactical reasons.

A modifying word preceding an adj. + noun combination can in many cases qualify either the whole phrase: *he is an extraordinary young man*, or the adjective: *what an extraordinarily superior expression*; obviously with a considerable difference as regards content. But in some cases the two syntactical views may cover roughly the same reality: *you are right from a purely historical point of view / few of these airline companies are operated from pure commercial reasons // it was a bitterly cold night / I can't work in such nice warm weather // this is really great poetry / it was one of those real devoted wooings*.

4.5.2 In many cases the same reality can be described by an adjective attached to the subject of a sentence, and describing this, and by an adverb attached to the verb to describe the action in question: *the wind blew strong(ly) / the moon shone clear(ly) / the Prime Minister stood for a few minutes in his open car and smilingly acknowledged the reception by waving his hand*. Owing to this approximation in

content the two possibilities are often found together: *he lived very simply, very quiet / I took my horse along a path that neither of us yet had trod . . . he had not (I think), for he went snorting and doubtfully / the penguins rose and came slowly, slow and bewildered, towards us.*

This dual possibility often leads to expressions such as: *on the tenth night of the march, they arrived thankfully at the camping-ground / he left the Canterbury place very respectfully*, where the adverb is very loosely attached to the verb as regards content (a phrase consisting of an adjective linked to the subject would be the obvious form of expression). This leads on to expressions such as: *hennaed to an impossible orange, a lock of tousled hair fell drunkenly across her forehead / 'Oh, my dear, my dear'. The torrent of words flowed sobbingly*, where the adverbial expression has replaced an adjective attached to a subject implicit in the context; the above expression thus states in one weighty predication what would more logically be expressed in two (e.g. *she was drunk, and . . . a lock . . . fell across her forehead*), and may serve as a stylistic device.

4.5.3 Verbs normally serving as copulas (see 1.1.3 and 1.1.7): *it is rare to see a face like that / she felt tired*, are not often found with adverbs attached instead of adjectives. When this is the case, the verb is less empty of content: *she tried to shrug her shoulders and feel truculently / how could it be otherwise?*—The verb *be*, when combined with an adverb, may be said to have a value approaching that of 'happen'. In the expression *it is rarely (or seldom) . . .* the adverbial form is usual: *it must be rarely that the English exile, when he thinks of home, thinks first of the Prime Minister of the day / when the people looked, which was seldom, outside their own borders, England was still the dreadful enemy to be feared.*—Concerning *be well, be poorly*, see 3.7.6.

Both constructions are common with the verbs *hang, lie, sit, stand*; with adjectives their content approaches *be*, with adverbs an association of attitude or the like predominates: *her curls were hanging loose / the forgotten lies safe from mortal moth and rust / he sat silent for a space . . . / he stood motionless // the day broke grey and dull. The clouds hung heavily, and there was a rawness in the air / the plain lay invitingly before them / he sat wearily in the first-class compartment as night fell over France / they moved silently about the rooms and gathered at last in a cluster by the fire, and stood silently without a word.*

The same applies to verbs such as *ring, sound, smell, taste*: *his laughter rang hollow / his voice sounded quiet and ordinary / the soup smells good / it tastes bitter // his voice rang out as clearly and bravely as ever / his words sounded rather oddly in my ears / the fish smells disgustingly / it tastes well* (rare). In the case of these verbs, adjectives and adverbs are by no means equally possible; words which may naturally describe the subject are normally found as adjectives: *the soup smells nice, sour, sweet*, etc., while words expressing a person's reaction usually occur as adverbs: *the fish smells unpleasantly, abominably, outrageously* ('smells' in the two examples thus means respectively 'is' and 'emits smell').

A great many other intransitive verbs can mean roughly *be*, either in their basic usage, or used more deliberately, and are therefore combined with adjectives instead of adverbs: *Are idiomatic expressions commoner in English than in other languages?—They undoubtedly bulk large in the mind of foreigners / Through the field-glasses they loomed overwhelmingly large // to-morrow is always another day, and hope springs eternal / how sweet the moonlight slept upon the water*. (The two final examples are taken from modern writers, but are hidden quotations from Pope and Shakespeare respectively.)

4.5.4 We have already seen (4.4.1 under *wrong(ly)*) that there may be approximation between an adjective attached to the object, and an adverb, in cases such as *he did his sums wrong(ly)*, in that the last word in this sentence may be regarded either as the result of the verbal action's effect on the object, or as a description of the course of the action (or its manner). Similar cases are often found: *he copied the letter out fair / she cut the bread thin / God created men and women different // They had painted the room brightly / the moon brought out the adjacent buildings resplendently*.

4.5.5 The loose attachment of phrases in parenthesis makes it possible to regard these as either adjectival or adverbial in value. The adverbial form is commonest: *it is hard to see how the Americans can emerge from their present position without a humiliation or a major war. But—most plainly—a temporary humiliation is better than a major war / conceivably, the fighting might be limited to the Formosa Strait / naturally, she would marry in the end*, even though it would be possible to regard the spaced words as abbreviations of *it is most plain*, and the like.—Adjectives are however used in a few cases of this kind:

doubtless: but *doubtless* his position was not an enviable one / I shall *doubtless* see you tomorrow. The content of this word is now weak, so that (like *no doubt*) it corresponds to 'probably', 'presumably'. For the full value, *undoubtedly* is now used: he is *undoubtedly* guilty / but, *undoubtedly*, the evenings which she enjoyed most were those on which there was dancing.

likely: used alone, as a parenthetical insertion, this is now obsolete or dialectal: he will *likely* be asked; but it is common in the phrases *very likely*, *most likely*, as *likely* as: he will *very likely* refuse / I shall *most likely* tell you some day / he will succeed as *likely* as not.

sure: used alone, this is considered uneducated: 'Will it help?' '*Sure*'; but it is common in the phrases *sure enough*, as *sure* as: I said it would happen, and *sure enough* it did / there will be another war, as *sure* as fate.

4.5.6 After *as* and *than* we find *usual*, and not *usually*, where these phrases can be regarded as abbreviations of *as is* (was) *usual* / *than is* (was) *usual*: he felt more faint *than usual* / he came rather late *as usual*. But the adverbial form is of course used when the word modifies a verb or an adjective: he spoke more *than* he *usually* does / he had felt more *than usually* faint.

4.5.7 Vacillation between the adjectival and the adverbial form is furthermore found in a number of prepositional phrases of the type *previous(ly) to*.

The situation to be expected is of course that such phrases should consist of adj. + preposition when attached to a noun, and of adv. + preposition when attached to a verb (and when loosely attached, cf. 4.5.5): the punishment should be *proportionate to* the crime / the Polish writer claims that 'diversity and richness of sentiments' flower *proportionately to* lack of interest in undressed actresses.

(1) A large number of adjectives + prepositions have however become stock prepositional phrases, and are found unchanged also where not attached to a noun, even though the adjectives in question otherwise add *-ly* when used adverbially. The most important of these are: *according to*, *contrary to*, *exclusive of*, *inclusive of*, *preparatory to*, *pursuant to*, *regardless of*: he cleared his throat *preparatory to* addressing the assembly / the act has been performed *pursuant to* previous instructions / every known precaution had been adopted, *regardless of* expense. It shows an exaggerated care for correctness

to treat these phrases as if they were not stock phrases and use the adverbial form, and the usage is not found among good writers: *the provision is quite inadequate and very grudgingly granted, and often, contrarily to the Act, totally denied* (cited by Fowler: Mod. Eng. Usage).

due to might have been included among the above-mentioned prepositional phrases where the first word is not given the adverbial form. But in standard English *due to* is used only in connection with a noun: *the accident was due to carelessness*; most grammarians hold its use as an adverb to be incorrect: *he came late, due to an accident*; here the correct usage is *owing to*: *she wished her husband to receive a settlement from the nation . . . and owing to the Tories, he was allowed only £30,000.*

(2) A number of these prepositional phrases however vacillate between the two forms when used adverbially; the most important are: *irrespective(ly) of, previous(ly) to, subsequent(ly) to*: *he rushed forward to help, irrespective of the consequences / Loyal obedience is due to the 'powers that be', as such, irrespectively of their historical origin* (cited by Fowler: Mod. Eng. Usage) // *I had been there previous to my marriage / it was arranged previously to my departure // subsequent to this, an investigation was made / in North America the large quadrupeds lived subsequently to that period.* In these cases the adjectival form is usual, but the adverbial form may be encountered in good writers. (Only the adjectival form is used of course when the phrase is attached to a noun: *the interest is irrespective of practical considerations.*)

(3) Lastly, it may be mentioned that in the cases where adj. and adv. + preposition follow the usual rules of syntax, e.g.: *conformable(-y) to, consistent(ly) with, different(ly) from, inconsistent(ly) with, independent(ly) of, similar(ly) to*: *his actions are inconsistent with his professions / he acts inconsistently with his professions // he is independent of his parents / utility can confer value independently of labour*—one may, as a result of the circumstance mentioned above, find the adjectival form instead of the adverbial, in a mistaken attempt at correctness: *The Carholme course, shaped very similar to the Doncaster Town Moor, is one of the best in England* (cited by Fowler: Mod. Eng. Usage) / *Surely no peace-loving man or woman will deny that it would be advisable to prevent strikes and lock-outs consistent with the principles of liberty as set forth by John Stuart Mill* (id.) / *I hope that most teachers in the present day have learnt to read*

the Old Testament (thanks to the higher critics) *different from the way I was taught to read it in my youth* (id.) / *I have come to my conclusions, independent of his attitude.*

4.5.8 In the enumeration of heads there is vacillation between *first* and *firstly*, while the continuation *secondly*, *thirdly* . . . *lastly* appears almost exclusively in the adverbial form; as the correlative of *then* only *first* is used: *First, he says, it is not true that the underdeveloped areas are caught in an unbreakable vicious circle of poverty. Secondly, he argues that by encouraging these countries to adopt elaborate development plans we run the risk of Socialising if not Communising them / they are firstly astonished, secondly apologetic, and thirdly sincerely contrite / lastly I would like to show you this picture / first think, then act.*

4.6 A number of words generally used as adverbs can occur in the attributive adjectival usage: *in after years / Mr X, the sometime professor of French / the then king / an upstairs room.*—Here and there used thus are vulgar English: *this here man / that there man.*—A couple of adverbs ending in *-s* lose it when used attributively: *indoor games*, cf. *to stay indoors / an outdoor life*, cf. *it is cold outdoors* (or *out of doors*).

Much, *very*

4.7.1 Words such as *awfully*, *exceedingly*, *far*, *frightfully*, *greatly*, *highly*, *much*, *terribly*, *very*, and many more, are used as intensive adverbs. Of these, *much* and *very* occupy a special position in expressing only a high degree, while each of the rest has associations which confine its usage to the intensification of certain concepts: *deeply interested / highly amusing / dreadfully sorry*, so that its use is a semantic question.

The choice between *much* and *very* is determined in most cases by syntactical factors. *Much* is used to intensify the verb; with adjectives and adverbs *very* is used with the positive and superlative, and *much* with the comparative; with prepositional phrases *much* is used: *he travels much / France has much improved her navy // this is very pleasant / he walked very slowly / this is my very lowest price // you look much better / you must walk much faster // he is much in love.*

4.7.2 *Very* is used to intensify the present participle: *the problem is very interesting*, but with the past participle there is some vacillation between *very* and *much*, according to whether the value of the participle is adjectival or verbal. Indisputably adjectival, and therefore intensified with *very*, are such cases as: *he is a very celebrated actor / there was a very surprised look on his face / the Midland Bank is making a very determined effort*; *much* cannot be used here. The spaced words in *-ed* describe the nouns with which they are linked, and no conception of a preceding action is attached to them. *Much* is used with such past participle forms only in archaic expressions, or in a mistaken attempt at correctness: *I am much beholden to you for your help / this volume contains a further and much welcome selection of Sir Desmond MacCarthy's critical essays*.—(These two originally past participle forms are ordinarily regarded in modern English as adjectives, and not as past participles; and only this possibility of combining them with *much* makes it permissible to mention them in this context.)

I am very grieved to hurt you / he is very interested in the subject / I am very pleased with what he has done // Mr S. was much interested to hear details of our own playing / we are all much annoyed at those figures having been published / I shall be much pleased to accept the offer. In these cases, where the past participle form denotes a mental state (and can be regarded as having a resultative value), *very* is used in colloquial English, while *much* belongs to a more formal style. *Very much* is often used as a slightly less formal expression: *he is very much interested in the project*.

Past participle forms which denote a physical condition (and which can be regarded as having a resultative value) also vacillate between *very* and *much*: *his manner towards her is very changed / the car was very damaged // some of the pictures were much damaged / our much impaired battalion was billeted in a sweet village scarcely yet spoiled*; but the distinction does not quite correspond to that of the preceding type; here *much* (or *very much*) is used both colloquially and formally, and *very* must be described as careless.—In American English the distinction seems to be as in the preceding type.

Very, on the other hand, is not normal usage with the past participle with verbal value (though naturally we find *very much*): *his attitude was much disliked / when Victoria crossed the frontier, she was much excited—and she was astonished as well / the rissoles were much fingered, one felt sure, lovingly rolled between the palms*. Thus

naturally, when the converted subject is attached by means of *by*, or is otherwise expressed in the context; *he was much amused by her ingenuous gaiety / devout men were much pained by behaviour which seemed to them impious / the force of inflation has been much weakened by the fall in import prices // you would not have been much surprised if he had wrapped himself in a cloud of glory and floated away to Olympus / The Dutch were much alarmed lest they should be attacked by the French.*

4.7.3 Some positive forms of adjectives with the prefix *a-*, which are found only in apposition and as a predicative complement (3.7.6), are intensified with *much*: *she was much afraid / they are much alike / he is even very much alive / his claret-coloured face was surmounted by a travel-stained wig much awry.*—(Cf. the fact that *much* is used before prepositional phrases; in most of these words *a-* is a weakened form of *on*.)—*Very* is rare in these cases; it appears to be a little more common in American than in British English: *he is very afraid that somebody will recognize him.*

Note that *much* is used before *too* + positive and before the definite article + superlative: *he is running much too fast // the international competition among feature films is much the noisiest part of the Venice Film Festival / Dunstan was much the most powerful man in the kingdom.*

Corresponding to *like*'s transition from adj. or adv. to a prepositional function, *very* (still the commoner) is being replaced by *much* as its intensive adverb: *one day was very like another at the vicarage / he reflected that he must look very like a fool / unlike an Oriental mystic and very like a Western scientist, he tests both aesthetic enjoyment and mystic experience by what he sees // he is much like his father / the Danish invasion was much like the invasion of the Saxons themselves.*

Sometimes *much* is found instead of *very* with *different*: *Scandinavian vowels were not very different from those of Old English / nobody expects that the far side of the moon is much different from that which is visible / Surrey . . . His use of the iambic principle was somewhat different from Wyatt's. Just how much different is uncertain.* This springs from this adjective's comparative sense, which may also govern its syntax in other respects; it may be qualified by *no* and *any* and be followed by *than* (frowned on by many), instead of *from*: *Sackville is no different from Baldwin / it will never be any different / he used a different manner than his colleague.*

4.7.4 Latin comparatives such as *inferior*, *superior* take *much* if followed by a comparison, or if one is implied, otherwise *very*: *these goods are of very inferior workmanship / this wine is very inferior stuff / this cloth is much superior to that.*

NUMERALS

5 As a part of speech, numerals are between adjectives and pronouns; like adjectives they come between a determinative and a noun: *these three people / the third day / he played another heart and got his ninth trick*;—like pronouns they can 1) be used substantively, without a determinative attached: *three were absent / three of the books / take three* (cf. e.g. *some*), and 2) precede adjectives: *three fine days / a hundred desperate adventures / the second annual meeting*; only their meaning distinguishes the numerals as a special group; they denote a position in the series in relation to zero.

5.1.1 Cardinal numbers.—The numbers 1 to 12 have no system; 13 to 19 are compounds of 3 to 9 + *-teen*: *fourteen, sixteen*, with a few phonetic and orthographical irregularities: *thirteen, fifteen, eighteen*; the stress is determined by considerations of rhythm and content, e.g.: *'thirteen years / he paid 'fifteen thousand / she is just 'thirteen*.—The numbers 20, 30 . . . 90 are compounds of 2 to 9 + *-ty*: *sixty, seventy*, with a few phonetic and orthographical irregularities: *twenty* (cf. *twain*, below), *thirty, forty, fifty, eighty*.—All whole numbers can be expressed with the help of the above-mentioned numerals, together with *hundred, thousand, million, milliard, billion*. Numbers are read from left to right: 2,926,358: *two million nine hundred and twenty-six thousand three hundred and fifty-eight*; 3004: *three thousand and four*; that is, with *and* inserted between *hundred* (*thousand*, etc.) and the following tens or ones.

Long rows of figures are made more easily readable with the help of a comma for every three digits reckoned from the decimal point: *balance carried forward stands at £7,451,756 / cosmic rays run from wave lengths of .0004 mm. to .000,000,000,008 mm.*

Nought is used of the arithmetical quantity, the value, and the sign: *.01 /point nɔ:t wʌn/ / nought by two is nought / the 'heavy franc', worth one hundred francs, has so far appeared only side by side with the familiar cascade of noughts on some price tags and over-printed banknotes*.—Zero is used particularly of the sign, and of the degree on measuring instruments: *the normal brain has the possibility*

of making at least ten with 2,783,000 zeros after it, different connections between nerve cells / the fuel gauges in all tanks were nearing zero / a man responds to zero temperature by remembering the last time he got his toes frost-bitten // if x becomes less than any pre-assigned magnitude, however small, then x is said to approach the limit zero / division (except by zero) is always possible.—Cipher is now found especially in figurative usages: the manager in the pit has become a cipher, running to H.Q. for every decision.—When the numbers are pronounced digit by digit, 0 /ou/ is often used, e.g. in telephone numbers: 1202 /wan tu: ou tu:/.—In sports various other terms are found: duck (actually duck's egg), love, nil: the first batsman was out for a duck / love—forty / the result of the game was 3—0 (three—nil).

5.1.2 Before *hundred*, *thousand*, etc. both *one* and *a* are found, where these numeral nouns denote the singular; more or less exact numbers are thus respectively expressed. *One* and *a* alternate similarly as the numerator in fractions.—Examples: page one hundred / a million is one thousand thousand / that's why these lamps give up to one fifth more light for the same current consumption // nuclear bombing will be a hundred times more devastating than anyone can foresee / the truth is rarely uttered though a thousand oaths are taken / the sort of Constitution Ireland might have if she were a million miles away from Britain / in Scotland the number of unemployed has been reduced by a third. When *hundred*, etc. form part of a compound number, *one* is the commoner usage: one hundred and twenty-five.—Since the indefinite article is not used after determinatives we find after these *one hundred*, etc. alternating with *hundred*, etc., with the difference in meaning mentioned above: the one hundred and first annual conference // without the smooth running of all the hundred little mechanisms . . . the Festival would not be complete / we lay like Argus of nights with all our hundred eyes ajar.

Examples showing that this distinction is not rigid are however to be found fairly frequently: when Mr Frank Cousins goes to the party conference he carries a card bearing one vote for each thousand of his affiliated members / the other one hundred and one preliminary arrangements / the hundred and sixty-eight hours that he longed to be with her / another hundred and fifty years were to pass. One may even hear second-century dates pronounced with a instead of *one*: in a hundred and twenty-five.

For *one* see further, 11.7.1 ff.

Twain occurs archaically and poetically instead of *two*: '*the twain shall never meet*' / *if the conference cannot evolve means of dealing with the South African problem . . . the Commonwealth may be riven in twain*.

Instead of the usual expressions: tens + ones, for the numbers 21–99 the literary (mannered) form ones + *and* + tens is sometimes found: *he was five-and-twenty, if he was a day / twenty-seven of the Nations of the Earth translated them into their seven-and-twenty tongues / twenty-five or thirty miles of moor and mountain, of wood and field-path, is better in every way than five-and-thirty, or even forty, hammered out on the road*.

Numbers between 1000 and 2000 can often be expressed in two ways: 1500: *one thousand five hundred and fifteen hundred*. The latter form is used for dates, and here abbreviation by omitting . . . *hundred and . . .* is common: 1864: *eighteen sixty-four*, 1066: *ten sixty-six*.

Instead of the terms *milliard* and *billion* (in British English *billion* = 'a million millions', in American *billion* = *milliard*, i.e. 'a thousand millions') expressions with *million* are often found: *today . . . there are two thousand eight hundred million of us / according to the experts, some 3,000,000 million francs of savings still remain uninvested in private nest-eggs*.

5.1.3 The words *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, etc. are primarily nouns: they may 1) take the indefinite article: *multiply by a hundred / he is one in a thousand*, 2) have the plural suffix: *the hundreds of thousands of people that throng the streets / on the first Christmas Day the population of our planet was about two hundred and fifty millions . . . there will be more than five and a half billions of us by the time my granddaughter is fifty*, and 3) be connected to the attached noun by *of*: *the mass immigration brought thousands of Jews into the country / the state opening of Parliament was watched by many millions of people* (*of* is not used however if *more* or *less* is inserted: *there are thousands more refugees in this country now than there were a year ago*).—When the uninflected form of these numerals is attached to a noun, they assume the function of adjectives, and *of* is not used: *the hundred books you gave me / the last two hundred years / a few hundred yards / a quarter of a million people*.

After cardinal numbers these words take no plural suffix and have an adjectival function if they are connected with a substantive: *three hundred men / four thousand pounds; million* however vacillates in

such cases between the unchanged plural and the plural with the suffix, and consequently in function between adjective and noun respectively: *a population of 20 million / fifty million Frenchmen / of the cigars smoked in Britain last year about 290 million were made here and about forty million were imported // gifts of duty-free cigarettes have latterly amounted to between two hundred millions and three hundred millions a month / the British Empire contains about a hundred millions of Mohammedans.*

After indefinite number terms these numeral nouns vacillate between the two constructions. Note however that these words always have -s and the substantival construction after *some*, generally after *many*, and as a rule no -s and the adjectival construction after *a few*: *some thousands of coloured people**) / *the Herulian Huns live many hundreds of miles from the Roman border / a few hundred men // ballistic rockets' work well within a few hundreds of miles from the earth.*—Cf. 2.3.10.

5.1.4 The other cardinal numbers are primarily adjectives: *the 138 executive councils . . . would share one administrative headquarters / he sold eighteen cattle.* To put a cardinal number after its noun is mannered: *Soldiers Three.* Like the indefinite pronouns *some*, *any*, etc., these words are substantival (1) before *of* + noun or pronoun: *seven of the famous Butchers of Broadway / two of them were a long way behind.* (Note that numerals + *of* + personal pronouns are often used without a partitive value: *the two of you = you two / the two of us basked in the mutual recognition of a deed well done / all five of them felt uneasy*); (2) when a noun already mentioned is understood: *a meeting of the two Prime Ministers expanded to include five more Ministers of the Federation and four from Singapore*; (3) when the situation or context implies a noun: *a boy of eight / cut the cake in two / the Big Four / the Outer Seven / he came at three / he paid 1/6 (one and six).*

The ordinary cardinal numbers are found as nouns (1) with the sense 'group(s) comprising this number': *they came at first perhaps in tens but at last in hundreds of thousands / ducks were rising in ones and twos, circling overhead / the only rooks we see are occasional migrants passing overhead in twos and threes / a cricket eleven*; (2) in the case of a whole series of numbers having common tens, more especially the decades of a life or a century: (cricket) *Hearne*

*) *some* followed by *hundred*, etc. can have only an adverbial value (= 'approximately'): *some thousand pounds.*

was in the nineties . . . he hit a four and reached his century / Sarah Bernhardt played Joan of Arc in her sixties / England in the eighties / economic resources are to be fully used during the 1960's / the fact that Shaw was always a laughing philosopher made him suspect to the Solemn Old of the nineteen-tens and caused him to be rejected by the Solemn Young of the nineteen-thirties. There is a corresponding usage of *teens* for the series 13–19, and of *hundreds* for a series with common hundreds: *a girl in her teens / the last half-century of the nineteen-hundreds* (i.e. 'the nineteenth century', this is unusual) *produced a group of authors in France with which no other nation could compare* (W. Somerset Maugham: *Three Journalists*) / . . . *Tillotson's biography. Pretty full to 1860, and then a blank, except for a pencil note in the early nineteen hundreds* (i.e. 1900–2000, this is normal usage, if mannered) *to the effect that he had returned from the East* (Aldous Huxley: *The Tillotson Banquet*); (3) *used of the numeral signs: your 4's / an English seven* (i.e. without a cross) */ a bishop who lived in Mesopotamia c. 650 speaks of 'nine signs', the zero seems not to have been known to him*; (4) *of arithmetical quantities: three nines make twenty-seven*; (5) *of an object, a hit or the like marked by that number or figure: a four (= a boat rowed by four) / there's a 47* (i.e. bus) */ the two of trumps / (cricket) he hit a four*; (6) *in a number of stock expressions: she went down on all fours / this crew are all at sixes and sevens* (i.e. confused) */ dressed up to the nines* (i.e. smartly).

5.1.5 As regards content, the cardinal numbers may be said to denote a specific number of individual phenomena, and can be defined by 'one more than . . . , one less than . . .' (e.g. *seven of the men were killed* = 'one more than six, etc.'). But there are a number of departures from this central signification:

In the case of nouns denoting measurement the concept of a number of individual phenomena recedes into the background, while the concept of the total number comes to the fore, owing to which the plural concept is replaced by the singular: *30 shillings was paid* (cf. **1.4.5**). This of course applies particularly to arithmetical quantities, to which no concept of real content (i.e. of individual phenomena) is attached: *20 is more than 15*.

A different content is furthermore to be found in a number of combinations where a cardinal number follows appellatives such as *line*, *page*, *number*: *line 42 / page 10*; here the cardinal does not denote number, and such combinations are best regarded as proper

names†), i.e. they denote individual phenomena and appear in the singular without the indefinite article (cf. 2.3.1): *the orderly functioning of the human nervous system depends on the direction of messages around the nerve circuits, as explained in Chapter III / at the lift gates the porter gave him the information he required, and he dropped down to Ward 81 / folio 131 stands between 146 and 147*. In many cases the appellative is omitted: *to-morrow he will be at 37 Catskill Street / the manuscript did not suffer so much from the fire of 1731 itself as from its consequences / at five p.m.*

Lastly, certain cardinal numbers may be used without their exact value: *he is ten times better than you / she was talking nineteen to the dozen / he was having his forty winks / the hundred and one thorny problems of supply / I have a thousand and one things to look after / a thousand thanks*.—When two numbers are linked by an unstressed *or*, what is expressed is not an alternative but a rough common concept: *one or two* = 'a few': *until two or three years ago this economic revolution did not easily catch the eye of the visitor to France / a chaplain was paid four or five pounds a year / a million Algerian peasants have moved house in the last twelve or eighteen months / if the plot had succeeded, there might have been twenty or thirty dead*.—Thus also *I've been there once or twice*.—(Two cardinal numbers linked by *to* differ from the combinations mentioned above in connoting the two possibilities stated + certain of those in between: *two to three percent / in 1750 a stage coach between London and Edinburgh took twelve to fourteen days / bridges measuring six to seven feet*.)

Other ways of making inexact statements in connection with cardinal numbers are: *I want about twenty pounds / the next four years or so / the 30 or so questions / an attempt of the Anglo-Catholics some thirty years ago to initiate negotiations with the Roman Church / some two million acres of arable land have been inundated / the policy of trying to stop the spreading of nuclear weapons to fourth and fifth nations, and so to umpteen* (i.e. 'many') *others*. Added after the tens, *odd* can denote any digit (except 0), after the hundreds any number from 1 to 99, and so on: *I think there are about forty-odd bishops altogether / the book has four hundred odd pages / the novel described a Vienna from which the 200,000-odd Jews had been evicted*.

†) It is commonly said that here cardinal numbers take the place of ordinals; but this is hardly correct when one considers cases such as 'room 412', which usually means the 12th room on the 4th floor, and not the 412th room.

5.2 The ordinal numbers are formed by adding *-th* /θ/ to the cardinals: *fourth*, *sixth*. The first three are however an exception to this: *first*, *second*, *third*.—Purely orthographical irregularities are found in *eighth*, *ninth*; irregularities which are also phonetic occur in *fifth*, *twelfth*, and the ordinals in *-tieth* /-tʃiθ/, *-tiəθ*/ formed from cardinals in *-ty*.—Examples: *at the eleventh hour / a pompous dinner to celebrate the eightieth birthday / the one hundred and first annual conference*.

Among more inventive ordinal number expressions the following may be quoted: *the nth term of this sequence / the program in which B., for the umpteenth time, did 'Swan Lake. Act II' / after the twenty-somethingth attempt I decided to lie where I fell*. (Ordinal numbers are not formed from cardinals in *odd*.)

5.2.1 The ordinal numbers are primarily adjectives: *my fifth visit / an inch is the twelfth part of a foot*.—Like the cardinals (cf. 5.1.4, first section) they are substantival in such cases as: *the second of the men / the chapters, from the second to the twelfth, constitute a kind of practical cookery book / on December the seventh*.

They may become nouns: *two memorable fourteenth of July*. They particularly often act as nouns in the denominators of fractions: *the population of Montreal is said to be two-thirds French and one-third English / a pressure of a hundred thousandth of an atmosphere*.

The ordinals act adverbially as the qualification of a superlative: *the second youngest / the third largest city in the world / India is the second most populous country of the world* (the same meaning can be expressed otherwise: *France is the next largest buyer / on the last lap but one, Cambridge spoiled a handsome record by losing their pole*);—and in enumeration: *I have attempted to answer the questions. First: what do we want to become? Second: what are we now? Third: how do we propose to pass from our present condition to the condition we desire to reach?*—In the last usage the adverbial form in *-ly* is now the more common in the case of *second*, etc.; only *first* is still commonest without the suffix (see 4.5.8).

5.2.2 Content: Ordinal numbers denote a specific position in a series (i.e. 'the next after the . . .'), and as adjectives are usually combined with nouns in the singular with a preceding determinative: *the third girl in the second row / that first day after the show*. They may however also be combined with nouns in the plural,

where these connote groups: *the second ten copies*, and with nouns in the indefinite singular and plural: *Reformatory Schools for the training of First Offenders* / *the Japanese requested that all vessels of third Powers should leave the ports of Wenchow and Foochow*. In the latter type the ordinals no longer have the usual sense of mere empty frames, but the general adjectival value of quality. 'First offender' is not used as distinct from 'second, third . . . offenders' but as distinct from 'old offender'; 'Third Power' has come to mean 'Power not engaged'.—Cf., as regards content, *second sight*, *third party*, *sixth sense*, *in the seventh heaven*, *at the eleventh hour*, etc.

5.3 In the higher values the series *once*, *twice*, *thrice* is replaced by *four times*, etc., but the first three may also be replaced by expressions with *time(s)*; this applies particularly to *thrice*, which is only used archaically.—Examples: *this opportunity comes only once* / *I did not have to be warned about hornets twice* / *I have read 'Science and Sanity' completely through three times*, and portions of it *a dozen times* / *thrice was this essayed*, but each time . . . the weather made embarking a spirited pony . . . impossible.

When the number of times in question is vague, *once or twice* and *two or three times*, etc. are used; *twice or thrice* is mannered: *only once or twice a year do these fish stray into the nets in the bay* / *the first time I met one of those soap trays I washed myself all over two or three times* / *we have three or four times as many as we can use* // *at most we may see a given place twice or thrice in a year*, and by seeing it may be stimulated to fuller knowledge and understanding.

Multiplication is expressed by *twice*, and apart from this by expressions with *times*: *meat consumption is almost twice what it was before the war* / *people will cheerfully pay four or five times as much as they used to pay for a dinner*; but they will not pay more than about *twice*, or *two and a half times*, as much as they used to pay for a good book.—When it is a question of purely arithmetical quantities expressions with *times* may be used throughout: *one times one is one* / *two times three is (are) six* or *twice three*, etc. / *three times five is (are) fifteen*.

5.4.1 Fractions are expressed by cardinal numbers for the numerator and ordinals for the denominator: *two thirds* / *three eighths*. The denominators *half* and *quarter* are irregular.

When the numerator is 1, *one* is used with a more exact value than the indefinite article; the latter is of course omitted after deter-

minatives: *the cost of collecting the sum of £337,127 has been only slightly over one-half of one per cent / the Chancellor argues that a half of the increase in purchasing power would go on drink and tobacco / the tax collector regularly takes away from the rich anything from a tenth to three quarters / the more fortunate third of the human race would make the best of both worlds.*—Expressions having fourth(s) as denominator are more exact than expressions with quarter(s): *a cylinder varied by three-fourths of an inch in diameter / a quart is equal to one fourth of a gallon / a fish of eleven and a quarter pounds / during the three-quarters of a century of its existence, the madrigal underwent a steady development.*

Half differs from the other denominators in that it may be found without an indefinite article even though not preceded by a determinative: *he wastes half of his time*; quarter may occur in the same construction, but this is not so common: *quarter of an hour later.*

5.4.2 The denominators of fractions are primarily nouns, and are connected with the succeeding noun or pronoun, where found, by *of*: *only a fifth of the grammar-school children were TV addicts / to predict the height of the tides within an inch may mean a saving of a hundredth of one per cent in the expenses of a great port / nine-tenths of it.* Expressions omitting *of* before nouns (especially after the lower denominators) are now also found, and to an increasing extent: *personal vanity has powered half the looms / we should try to reduce the area sown to various crops to about one-third the present acreage.*

When fractions are used adjectivally they keep their plural indicator: *a two-thirds majority / three and three-eighths inches*; as a rule this does not apply to quarter however: *a three-quarter majority.*

Fractions can act as adverbs and be attached unchanged to adjectives and past participle forms: *the bottle is two-thirds full / the afternoon was already half spent.*

5.4.3 In content, fractions correspond to cardinal numbers, and denote a specific number or a specific quantity. A number of 'round' fractions are also used with unspecific content, especially $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{1}{100}$: *half-naked / half a gale / it's not a quarter as good as it should be.*

5.4.4 In the case of mixed numbers of which *half* or *quarter* forms a part the commonest word order was formerly: *two miles and a*

quarter / one hour and three-quarters / Punch has two million and a half readers; now the whole mixed number is generally placed before the noun: five and one-half yards make a rod / a population of only two and a half millions / black type one and a half inches high.

5.4.5 The same quantity can often be expressed numerically in more than one way: *during the last eighteen months the capital value of shares had increased by some £5,000 millions / the Disarmament Conference had been in session for a year and a half / six months / half a year / for 12 months exhibitors must show at least 15 per cent. of Empire films.*

5.5 Decimal fractions are written with a point after the ones: *4.9 per cent* /fɔ: point nain pə sent/; if the figure is less than one, 0 is written in the position of the one, or the position is left blank: *0.58 grams / .05 per cent.*

5.6 The words *first, last, next, other* present a problem in word order, in that they may on the one hand approximate to ordinals in content in denoting 'position in a series', and on the other have a quality content, and thus be adjectives (and approximate in content to *earliest, final, following, different* respectively). As adjectives follow cardinal numbers: *the two largest parties in Parliament*, but ordinal numbers precede cardinals: *the second two copies arrived this morning*, one would expect that the words mentioned might occupy either position.

Much the commoner usage is to give them the same position as ordinal numbers: *the first three weeks of February / the first 700 pages of the book / for the last four years Britain has had a current account surplus with the United States / Benko is like Fischer one of the last eight in the world title eliminating tournament / the postponement of payments will save India \$7 millions over the next nine years / the next 100 pages / a temporary arrangement between the Common Market and the other eleven European countries / three of the guards had tommy-guns, the other two had rifles.*

First, last and next are not infrequently placed after the lowest cardinal numbers (1-4): *the two first (last, next) chapters are interesting / his three last coppers.*—When *last* means 'last-mentioned' it is usually found in this position: *Moby Dick, Ivanhoe, and The Talisman . . . the two last will appeal to you.*

Other often occupies the position of the adjective instead of that of the ordinal: *the two other men / the two other works of his I know* . . . —When *other* connotes 'additional' it is in this position: *he has three other brothers / 100 other national servicemen*; with this sense, the position as for ordinal numbers is very unusual: . . . *I watched other two boys who had made a fire . . . other two boys were fishing with a handkerchief tied between two twigs* (Manch. Guard. Weekly, 25 June 1959, p. 15).

PRONOUNS AND DETERMINATIVES

6 The pronouns form a very heterogeneous group. Its characteristics include the following features:

Only among the pronouns do we find different forms for the subjective and objective functions: *I/me*; *who/whom*, etc., although most of them do not display this feature: *it, which*, etc.

There are various gender distinctions: masculine/feminine/neuter: *he/she/it*; distinctions of person/non-person: *everybody/everything*; (the relatives) *who/which*, etc.; what is countable as against what is uncountable, important for the use of *one*.

Most pronouns are mutually exclusive as qualifiers; if *that book* and *your book* are to be combined the usual form is: *that book of yours* (though in formal speech one may still encounter demonstrative + possessive pron.: *It was the most unpleasant experience Sir Winston has had during this his second Premiership*).—But this does not apply to, for instance, *every* and *both*: *his every whim / both these books*.

As regards content, pronouns are 'outline words', i.e. they lack factual content, which must be deduced from the context or the situation: *he picked up Jeff's pajamas and inspected them solemnly / just such a shop as the one at which he himself buys maps, paraffin, crockery and glue // ask me something easier*.—Many words act sometimes as pronouns, sometimes as adjectives, according to whether they lack or possess a descriptive element: *several men were left behind / they went their several ways // the same man who was here yesterday / we eat the same food every day*.

Personal Pronouns

6.1.1 The distinguishing feature of the personal pronouns is that they differentiate between 1st person (person(s) speaking), 2nd person (person(s) addressed), and 3rd person (person(s) or thing(s) mentioned). These comprise the personal pronouns proper *I/me—(thou/thee)—you—he/him—she/her—it—we/us—they/them*, the possessive pronouns acting as their genitives: *my/mine—(thy/thine)—your(s)*, etc., together with the compounds formed by the addition of *-self/-selves* to the words of one or the other of these two groups: *myself, (thysself), yourself*, etc.

6.1.2 1st and 2nd person pronouns represent proper nouns the identity of which is determined by the situation; 3rd person pronouns represent proper nouns or appellatives, the identity appearing from the context or situation. The noun represented is of course often to be found in the preceding words: *several dozens of tiny drawers labelled on the front with their contents*. However, the personal pronoun very frequently precedes the noun represented: *Their first important naval loss was suffered by the Spanish rebels on Friday / before long a brother would follow, to snatch her faint chance of succession from the little princess / an attack of illness following the strained tendon in his foot which prevented him bowling in the second innings at Leeds put Larwood out of the running / after he had retired from the Service I was acquainted with the late Colonel John Browne*;—this occurs particularly often in a subordinate clause or a prepositional phrase placed early in the sentence.

Although personal pronouns take the place of nouns, they do not always occupy the same position as these; thus a personal pronoun as subject cannot be separated from its verb by long intervening sentence elements, as is often the case with a noun as subject; compare these two sentences: *Then from the bosom of the moss came a hoarse croaking, as a heron, rising slowly into the keen night air, after his day of unproductive fishing by the black frozen pools of the slow Forth, flapped heavily away / My mother at the same time would tell him to treat the contents carefully, as on her last visit the week before with some other articles he had thrown them carelessly on the floor.*

Furthermore the indirect object precedes the direct object when these are nouns: *she gave her friend a present*. The same word order may be found when these elements are pronouns; *give me it!* / *He gave them it*. But in British English *it* and *them* as direct objects as a rule precede a personal pronoun as indirect object: *I gave it him* / *He gave it them* / *That's what I gave them you for*.

6.1.3 A number of personal pronouns have different forms as subject and as object, prepositional complement, etc.: *he frightens me* / *she bought me an overcoat* / *I gave it to him* / *I took Mary to be her*. In a number of cases however the use of the two forms is somewhat uncertain, there being a tendency to use the objective form as an independent form of the pronoun:

As part of the subject, the independent form may supplant the nominative when it is not immediately followed by the verb: *we found out that him and his wife, without saying a word to anybody, had got on a French boat and skipped* / *They understood one another all right, Jack and her* / *Jane would be—not resentful, oh no, not her!* This is slipshod everyday speech; the nominative is the usual form: *I and my elder sister had begun to earn a few shillings*.

In exclamations without a verb: 'Come along!'—'Me?' / 'I have come to tell you a piece of news . . . it is about a marriage.' 'A man or a woman?' *she asked*.—'A man—me!' *he said, with reckless grammar*, the independent form is that of natural speech; thus always in the type *and* + pers. pron. + statement of circumstances: *how could the room be cleaned and me with my rheumatism* / *It was awful to think of him dying quite near and me never knowing*.

In more formal language a personal pronoun as subjective predicative complement is in the nominative: *Spandrel—for it was he—did not answer* / *it is I*. In natural speech the independent form is used: *it is me* / *that is him* / *people ready to enjoy anything amusing that came their way—which, on this occasion, turned out to be us* / *the duke used to carry on long and intimate conversations with me, thinking that I was her*. If however the pronoun has a relative clause attached to it, the attraction of this generally determines the form of the pronoun: *it was I who saved her* / *it was he who planned my marriage* / *it is we who should be grateful to him* // *it is me he misjudges* / *it is us they are talking about*. But even with this construction the tendency to use the objective form as an independent form may win in spite of the attraction: *I'm glad now it's me that must die and not you*.

6.1.4 After the conjunctions *as*, *but*, *than* one would expect the form of the personal pronouns to be determined by their function in the curtailed clause, in cases such as: *I blame you as much as he* (i.e. *as he does*) / *I blame you as much as him* (i.e. *as I blame him*) / *he is taller than I* (i.e. *than I am*) / *Brideshead was three years older than Sebastian and I* / *it'll take you longer to get straight and dress than me*. This usage must now be termed consciously correct; it is therefore to be found with, for instance, the literary expression *such . . . as: such men as he are intolerable / I cannot tolerate such men as him*. But otherwise the independent form is usual in colloquial speech after the above-mentioned conjunctions: *why aren't other people as good as me?* / *it is not he* (i.e. *Mr Macmillan*) *who has been bewildered in these last few weeks but them* (i.e. *the Opposition*) / *he is much older than me*.—Various expressions are used as a neutral form, neither consciously correct nor colloquial: 1) a verb is added: *he loves you more than I do* / *he is as old as I am*; 2) the personal pronoun is supported by a self-form: *Goethe's instinct must have told him that the character he had created in the first book . . . would have been . . . no more likely to commit suicide than he himself*; or 3) the self-form takes the place of the personal pronoun: *she had a great experience once when a respected neighbour arrived . . . in the same cubicle as herself* / *had I come one trench watch two hours later, not young C. but myself would have been puzzled by the appearance of a German officer* / *no one knew this better than myself*.

6.1.5 The fact described above, that *me*, etc. as an independent nominative tends to supplant *I*, etc., can in some cases result in the substitution of *I*, etc. for *me*, etc. with an objective function, in a mistaken attempt at correctness: *that's what brought us together, Ralph and I* / *he could only get tickets for you and I* / *between you and I* / *let you and I go* / *happiness is not for such as I* / / *the perplexity of Americans provides he who guides with most amusement*. This usage is not accepted in educated speech.

The same tendency occurs after *but*, *except*, *like*, used prepositionally; normal usage is: *nobody else went but me* / *they are all lazy except him* / *people like us*; but since these words are also used as conjunctions, it is understandable that the subjective form may be used in place of the objective, especially when the word order is also conducive to this: *no one but he* (common usage) *would have thought of it* / *everyone except I* (common usage *me*) *went there* / *the jolly tuneful stuff barbarians like you and I* (common usage *me*) *enjoy*.

6.1.6 In the expression *I for one*, where the letter *I* is probably the Roman numeral for 1*), the *I* has been taken to be the personal pronoun, and *for one* has thus become an emphatic phrase, which may now be added to any personal pronoun in the singular or a general or particular name for a person: *I for one find 'integrity', as Dr C. calls it, increasingly difficult to maintain / He leaves me for one in a disturbing physical and emotional turmoil / his tutor, Dr Alcock, came on to London with him, for one / ... guess ... who were the guests. B., for one.*

6.1.7 *We* first and foremost signifies the speaker + another or certain others; the appropriate content can be obtained by additions: *we, the children, had taken so little care of the clothes.*—But it is also used with other values: (1) Of the speaker + everyone else: *we live to learn*; *we don't like to be contradicted*; this generic value approaches that of *you, one*, etc., used in the sense of 'people'; this *we* has a connotation of modesty. (2) Of the speaker (= *I*), used by rulers, authors, etc.: '*We are not amused*' (*Queen Victoria*) / *we have been led to make these reflections by a visit we paid as a private member to a meeting of the Central Branch.* (3) Of the person(s) addressed (= *you*), used in a patronizing tone to children and the sick: *How are we this morning / Can't we open our mouth a little wider.*

6.1.8 Nowadays *you* is singular and plural, subjective and objective form, but formerly these usages comprised four forms: sing. nom. *thou*, acc. *thee*; pl. nom. *ye*, acc. *you*. This usage is now to be found only in biblical and poetical speech: *I will fear no evil: for Thou art with me / nearer, my God, to Thee / Woe unto you, scribes and Pharisees, hypocrites, for ye are like unto whited sepulchres.*

The present identity of sing. and pl. results in the occasional use of additions to make the number clear: *you sir / you are all welcome / you kids / you gentlemen.*

You is frequently used of the person(s) addressed + others, indeed, even the speaker may be included (cp. *we* (6.1.7), *one* (11.7.1)). These utterances have a confidential note; it is taken for granted that the person (or persons) addressed agrees: *in spite of the notorious tendency of the Americans to travel, you will find large numbers of persons, along the Atlantic seaboard for example, who have never seen their own west,*

*) See O. Jespersen: *Modern English Grammar* VII 17.1.8.

even though they may have crossed the Atlantic a score of times / you never can tell / I knew a spot where by lying flat on your stomach and keeping your head very low you could see under the canvas and get a view of the wicket.

You is not normally included with the imperative: *Well, bang around for a bit!*—When included it is strongly emphatic: *You stay in!*

The fact that there are no pronouns to distinguish between formal and intimate address in English naturally leads to difficulties when this distinction in other languages has to be rendered in English: 'Ach, Herr Carey, Sie müssen mir nicht "du" sagen—you mustn't talk to me in the second person singular' (Somerset Maugham: *Of Human Bondage*).

6.2.1 The lack of a common gender pronoun in the 3rd pers. sing. creates a difficulty. In colloquial speech and informal written English this is solved by the use of *they*: *No one is really hard-up while they have something to pawn / every one if they were honest would say the same.* In very correct language 'he or she' is used: *if a person had not got the money, then he or she just could not pay / three poets, none of whom has ever had a volume of his or her poetry nationally published.* If the situation or the context makes it plain that only one gender is in question naturally only one pronoun is used: *Everyone was on her mettle* (of a sports-team of women) / *'No child', continued my niece, 'ever put more than twopence into a money-box, unless she knew how to open it / I suppose that everyone of us* (written by a masculine author) *hopes secretly for immortality; to leave, I mean, a name behind him which will live for ever in this world, whatever he may be doing, himself, in the next.*—In literary and formal language the masculine pronoun is used even when the statement applies to both sexes: *he would be a rash moralist who would attempt to deny that the ethics of the New Testament are pacifist / No one knows how sun and water can make a steep bank of moss smell all ambrosia till he has dug foot, fingers, and face into it in earnest / when bathing a baby always hold him securely.*

In the case of the many substantives denoting a person of either sex: *friend, person, teacher*, etc., the problem is solved as above; with *baby* and *child* however it also provides a solution: *'You mustn't take the baby's death too hardly. As things are perhaps it's better it died / every child who has ever broken into its own money-box knows this.*—For a further use of it applied to persons, see below, **6.2.5**.

6.2.2 Some designations of animals indicate sex: *stallion, bull, cock; mare, vixen, lioness*, some do not: *horse, fly, mouse*. Some can be used in both senses: *duck, fox, lion* (see 2.4.5). The first type is generally replaced by respectively *he* or *she*: *the stallion sulked; perhaps his crash into the wall had sobered him / the mare told the wolf, who wanted to buy her foal, that the price was written on her hind foot; but it is not uncommon: the black stallion lifted its head.*

With the second type, *he* (and in the case of a very few animal names, e.g. *cat, deer, hare: she*) is used when the sex of the animal is unknown or unimportant, provided that the animal is within the speaker's sphere of interest; if not, it is used: *you could catch any bird by putting salt on his tail / the blackbird rushed away to the bush, where he remained perched for about a minute / the kangaroo may be the national symbol, but that does not save him from wholesale slaughter / I judged him to be a trout of half a pound weight / a shaggy farm horse was sitting in the corner of a field with his front legs tucked under him / the animal (i.e. a horse) tossed his head / her little dog yapped hysterically; his tail waved like a plume in the wind, his eyes goggled out of his black face / a brown mountain hare sunning himself // the cat jumped on to the sofa and coiled herself up / the hare in her form // a midwife toad uttered its crystal monosyllable / a large sea turtle had got in among the fish . . . it took four men grasping it by its flippers to lift it on to the boat / the dog caught sight of him, it began to bristle and growl, and when he rushed down the steps it gave an undecided hop / the steaming horse walked quietly out. He rubbed it down, watered and fed it / the hare takes readily to the water, where it swims well / the cat ceased to spit, its fur lay back, it walked away majestically.*

Normally of course the same attitude will be maintained throughout a given context, but variation within quite short passages does occur: *I am feeding a little black cat quite regularly twice a day. It comes round at eight in the morning and at five in the afternoon; . . . he seems always to come from over there / the cheetah was on the big buck's rump and down he came in the dust. Away went the herd and we were left alone with the dying buck and our cheetah. He was breathing hard but kept firm hold of the buck's stern. It lay with its big eyes pathetically open. An acolyte . . . cut the buck's throat and poured the blood into the cheetah's mouth and forced it to let go / the black stallion lifted its head, a wisp of grass unswallowed between his velvety lips . . . The animal tossed his head and snorted. As the man pulled more strongly, it dug in its four hooves.*

6.2.3 A distinction corresponding to that just described, between *it* and *he* or *she*, the use of *he* or *she* indicating the speaker's interest, is to be found when these pronouns represent the designations of ships, cars, and similar man-made objects: *through the glasses she showed herself to be a brigantine / they put their shoulders to the boat and had her launched . . . The boat edges its way to one end of the net // Here she* (i.e. the bus) *comes! / their coach bumped its way out of the gate // He held the machine down, letting her gain speed upon the ground; with three hundred yards or so to go he lifted her off . . . The wheel stirred from time to time to keep the aircraft on its chosen path // We looked at the piano. I felt surprised that it should need 13 able-bodied men to move it . . . 'Take her up to the third floor', said the Sergeant.* The masculine is less common, but is sometimes used about, for instance, railway engines.

6.2.4 In literary English *he* and *she* are used instead of *it* where there is personification (the substantive represented being commonly written with a capital). The use of the masculine or feminine pronoun here often agrees with the gender of the corresponding Latin word. The masculine pronoun is substituted for such words as *death*, *sun*, *war*, while *earth*, *moon*, *nature*, etc. and—very often—the names of countries are replaced by the feminine pronoun: *the occultation or covering of his satellites by Jupiter / Jupiter . . . its position in the sky is not so circumscribed as that of Venus // our study of the sun as the leading member of the solar system must be supplemented by a comparative study of him in relation to his compeers in the stellar universe / we see the sun not as it is now but as it was eight minutes ago . . . // War . . . none of his masks and smiles and gallant trumpets can any longer delude us; he leads the way through the cornfields to the cemetery / the Church does not condemn war; but Jesus did condemn it // history has revised her verdict / history had repeated itself // the moon had risen. How pale and ghostly the roofs looked in her silvery light / the moon is of no particular importance except to the earth which it attends as satellite // Nature is dead: . . . the time has surely come for artifice to take her place / for modern man the really blessed thing about Nature is its otherness // Eton is just the same; but even if she is not, even if she has changed for the worse, I believe her to be better than any other school / Eton . . . it has to inspire and control the ideals of boys // Venice struck out a line for herself and developed a style of her own, known as Lombardesque / another Venice seen from its canals // France has made*

it plain that *she* will reject the proposal / if neither Philip nor Alexander had appeared on the scene, *Greece* might have maintained *her* independence for another generation or two / the obvious thing would be for the *Soviet Union* to use some of *its* ample gold reserves, but *her* stern classical economists regard gold as far too valuable to be used in trade / *Russia* produces more oil than it can use / has *Greece* made up *its* heroic mind?—Where there is no possibility of personification the neuter pronoun is of course used: *Greece* has an area of about 50,000 sq. mi. *It* is scantily peopled, as indeed one would expect from *its* generally mountainous and barren nature.

6.2.5 *It* refers primarily to singular substantives not designating a person: *the moon* was so bright that you could read a book by *it* / as *water* moves into rivers and lakes, *it* becomes a natural carrier for a number of injections. As regards the choice between *it* and *he* or *she*, see above, **6.2.1** (last paragraph)—**6.2.4**.

It is sometimes used instead of *you* to express an assumedly tender, protective attitude: 'Come in, come in, tiny one . . . Bless *its* little heart. Take off *its* little coat. Good Lord, you look easily eleven years old in that dress.'

6.2.6 When referring to collective nouns *it* or *they* is used, corresponding to the two aspects of the concept of these nouns: *if the government* wishes a wide response to *its* appeal for National Service *it* should see that . . . / *the Peking government and their* forces // *a firm of clerical outfitters* has once again sent me *its* catalogue of robes and clothing for the clergy. *They* do this every year.—The same applies to plural forms signifying a unit: *if he* wanted a *hundred pounds* at any moment, he could have *them* / *It'll* cost . . . *ten thousand dollars* . . . Can you get *it* at once?—See also **1.4.8**.

6.2.7 *It* may refer to the content of (part of) a preceding clause or sentence: *they* consume the fish raw on the spot. *I* have done *it* too / 'You are late'.—*It* is not my fault'. In content this *it* approximates (1) *that*, which is more emphatic: *Is that* really true? / *I* cut my finger off with a sharp stone. *That* hurt much more; (2) *so*: thanks to the excellent testimonial *I* gave him (*I* had forgotten having done *so*!) *he* is now in a new job (see **7.7.1**); (3) certain substantives with diminished content, such as *matter*, *thing*: Can you produce something to show that the local authority is dealing with *the matter*? / *I* saw the yellow form of some animal. For a second *I* thought *the thing* might be a roedeer. (4) Furthermore certain verbs are to be found with *it* as the object referring to some fact already mentioned, while these verbs when

without an object refer more vaguely to the fact mentioned + what is connected with it; this applies to *find out, forget, know, manage, mind, refuse, remember, show, tell, try, understand, etc.*: *it all happened a long while back. Forget it / It had all happened a long time ago . . . Perhaps these commonplace surroundings were part of her deliberate efforts to forget // the B minor Suite came floating up from the great hall to the ears of the two men in the laboratory. They were too busy to realize that they were bearing it / calling slanderous remarks out loudly so that all the neighbours could hear // He was dying and he knew it / 'The man's dead'.—Yes, I know.*

6.2.8 It may refer to the content of (part of) a following clause or sentence: *it was unbelievable—they actually welcomed me / it was uncertain what memories he was harbouring / it might be of interest if I set down a few of my wilder speculations / so it comes about that he turns up with a registered letter / it would have been nice to know such a fine brave soul // he got it into his head that the doctors were taking his case too indifferently / I found it quite impossible to read these contributions.*—In content it in this usage approximates (1) *this*, which is more emphatic: *both Gospels have this in common that they neither describe nor exhibit Him as other than man*; (2) *the fact*: *most ironical of all was the fact that it was the Germans who had been ordered to pull the building down / Jesus emphasized the fact that the dispositions which prompted to acts of sin were as culpable in the sight of God as the acts themselves.* The anticipatory *it* is generally separated from the clause it represents: *he resents it so terribly that he's ill and I'm well*, but in the case of a few verbs it can as object immediately precede the clause in question: *I don't like it that he should be alone with my girl / the man to whom I owe it that I am still alive / I take it that you will start at once.*

In modern English only the prepositions *except* (= 'with the exception of') and *in* (= 'in the respect') can govern a (*that*)-clause: *she knew nothing except that he was there / the Modern English is more complicated than the Old English verb, in that it has a highly developed analytic tense system*; in the case of other prepositions, *it, this, or the fact* are inserted as the object*): *they saw to it I was not disturbed*

* Among other ways of expressing the subject + verb nexus as the complement of a preposition may be noted the accusative with infinitive: *you may count on him to come*, and such gerund constructions as: *I'm not surprised at young or old falling in love with her.*

while I was working / . . . he will reduce his stories to this, that they were young, fell in love, married and were unhappy / the only clue may be in the fact that the bricks are laid in the English bond / their limitations are indicated by the fact that we never refer to them as pens, only as ballpoints.

6.3.1 The usage of *it* described in **6.2.8** is often termed *anticipatory it*, which as regards content means that *it* = the succeeding (part of the) clause or sentence which it represents; and (more or less naturally) this can be substituted instead: *it will take the Labour party some weeks to regain full consciousness / it was somewhere about 1918 that I first joined our village club / it was now a long age since July 1st and its blue skies*. These sentences could of course be changed to *to regain full consciousness will take the Labour party some weeks*, etc., but there is more to it than this. The relation between *it* and the clause or phrase it represents in such cases might rather be said to correspond to the relation between a subject and its predicative complement†), i.e. a sentence member poor in content as against a richer member. The use of the anticipatory *it* is thus a device for avoiding a member loaded with content as subject (respectively object), and placing it in the position of the predicative complement. In this usage, therefore, *it* has a much less definite content than in the usages previously discussed, and almost becomes a formal grammatical device (in the sense that the language requires something in the position of the subject (or object)). Its content in this type could be expressed as, for instance: 'what is in question'.

6.3.2 *It* as a formal grammatical device with the above-mentioned diminished content is unmistakably to be found in such expressions as: *how tough it is going to be for the six volunteers on their windy hill top / It was as though somebody had suddenly revealed the identity of Junius / it proved to be quite the wrong school for training a black-and-white artist*.

Among special uses of the pronoun with this value the following may be noted:

6.3.3 *It* used in statements concerning time, distance, weather, etc.: *it was several months before we met again / in spite of the season—*

†) I am here referring to the commonest type of sentence, consisting of subject + a form of *to be* + predicative complement, where even examples such as *boys will be boys* cannot be rendered as $A = A$ since the subject signifies a category and the predicative complement character, but are better rendered $A = A_e$, or something on those lines.

it was June—there was some chillness in the air / *it's* a quarter to ten // *it* is a long way to our farm / Z. is famous for its pontoon bridge; from there *it* is two hundred miles to the frontier // *it* is dark / the next two Saturdays *it* poured with rain.

6.3.4 *It* as a formal object and prepositional complement with little content: Give *it* him hot! / God damn *it*, I don't want to die / I like *it* here // there seemed nothing for *it* but to travel the 60 miles / he has had a hard time of *it* / he was hard put to *it*. An *it* of this kind is common as the object after a number of words which are usually substantives or adjectives, but which are sometimes used as verbs: we would sleep out on fine nights; and hotel *it*, and inn *it*, and pub *it* when it was wet / I am too old to rough *it*.

6.3.5 The above-mentioned weak value: 'what is in question' may develop into a value such as: 'What is most important in these particular circumstances' (often written with a capital): she had nothing of what he still called *It* / This is *It*.

6.3.6 The *it* as a grammatical device with diminished content is also used in splitting sentences: Tom has said *it* > *it* is Tom who has said *it*, as a means of emphasis: everyone knows *it* is a 'butterfingers' who drops a catch / *it* is the preacher who does not prepare who sends his congregation away empty / *it* was precisely speeches of this kind which led Israel to launch its Sinai campaign.

6.3.7 Lastly, this formal *it* is to be found in sentences giving information as to identity: he perceived under the sofa a crouching figure. *It* was 'the boy Jones' / somebody sat behind him. I saw that *it* was his brother / she took the child over to the bed in which a woman was lying. *It* was his mother / I find from time to time small offerings from Bob . . . *It* may be a few eggs, or a gathering of mushrooms.—A resemblance in content to this type of sentence may be found in the following sentences, which give 'further information as to one or more persons or things whose identity is regarded as known': we invited one such nervous minister to preach to us about a year ago. He was a young man who had not long left college / Miss W. said she'd take the boy . . . She's his godmother / Gregory asked whence some fairhaired slaves came, and was told *they* were Angles / one of the ropes writhed uneasily, and suddenly Lenina saw that *they* were snakes.—If the two groups of examples are compared it is clear that in the case of some both forms

of expression will often be possible, in that the statement in question may give information as to identity, or give further information as to 'the person(s) or thing(s) in question'. The following are examples of this type: *a Rebel officer pulled one of us out; he was Edward Dickinson of Whitechapel / Of the various foreign ministers during my time at the Foreign Office only one could be relied upon not to do more harm than good in his press interviews. He was the late M. Arthur Henderson / he had a girl in London, well, she wasn't exactly a girl / two ghostlike figures on horseback emerged from the black of the spruce . . . It was two Indians on horseback, swathed like seated mummies in their pale-grey cotton blankets.*

6.3.8 *It* and *there*.—Although in some of the cases cited, where its use reflects the tendency to place a loaded substantive after the verb, it is often greatly reduced in content, a certain intrinsic value may nevertheless be ascribed to it: 'that about which something is stated', or something on those lines. An intrinsic value of this kind is not attached to *there* in similar constructions; *there* is a purely formal grammatical device.

There is used in statements where the subject is in the indefinite‡) form and the verb a form of *be* in the sense 'exist'. Here we find only the expression *there* + form of *be* + subj., it is not possible to have the construction subj. + form of *be* instead: *there were five lifts / there is a nasty kind of word about the doings of the police. There* is also to be found with a number of verbs, such as *appear, come*, etc., with diminished content. Instead of subj. + vb: *a time came when . . .* the construction *there* + vb + subj. may be used: *there came a time when . . .* This is the form preferred (particularly in written English) when the verb is of diminished content and the subject is weighted as to content and form: *presently there came in a young man with thin, black hair, an enormous nose, and a face so long that it reminded you of a horse / just when he had remounted the pulpit there flew out of the loft not one but half a dozen bats / there remain two ways in which France's allies could try to meet her demands / On December 28, 1859 there died at Holly Lodge, Campden Hill, Thomas Babington, Lord Macaulay.*

The corresponding use of *there* with the infinitive and gerund should be noted: *nor do we want there to be too rigid a conformity /*

‡) The construction with a definite subject is less common: *apart from the delegates there are the members of the United Nations Secretariat*; it has a connotation of 'inter alia'.

no one had told him anything about there being a story in the damned book.

There cannot be said to be any actual uncertainty in the use of *it* and *there* in this construction; but cases occur where the same situation can be expressed by both: *it was an hour before dawn* (point of time) / *There were twenty minutes before dinner*. *Jeremy thought he would go and see how the Upper Fields were looking* (extent of time).—In addition, the referential *it* (see 6.2.7) can be substituted for *there* for stylistic reasons. A natural introductory formulation such as: *There had been an examination at school; it had been an examination in geography* may, in order to plunge the reader *in medias res*, be changed to: *It had been an examination in geography at school that morning, and when Peter arrived home his mother asked him . . .* (Manchester Guardian Feb. 25, 1955).*)

6.3.9 In expressions of comparison clauses without a subject are found after *as* and *than*, where the subject would have the value of the non-referential *it*: *I shall act as seems best / the conditions are as follows* (*follow* is sometimes mistakenly used in this type). For example: *the landlords, as is usual, claim that the house shall be painted / the book restores him, as is proper, as a figure in his own right / as has already been explained, grammatical gender has disappeared from English / imports have also been increasing, as is only to be expected when output is expanding / we have attempted, so far as is possible, to avoid polemics / altogether, a book more rewarding than at first sight might appear.*—If sentences of this kind include an infinitive lacking its complement, the subject is not omitted: *the translation is as removed from plain prose as it is possible to be / he got more than it is possible to get today.*

The referential *it* is not omitted in connections corresponding to the above: *the obvious action was to maintain the retreat as indefatigably as it had already been maintained in the preceding twenty-four hours.*

See also the remarks on the omitted subject under *what* (10.7.5).

*) This corresponds to the use of a substantive with the definite article with referential value used in an introductory sentence instead of the 'natural' form: substantive with indefinite article, followed by the same substantive with the definite article. Compare an 'artless' beginning such as *An elder sister came to visit her younger sister in the country. The elder was married to a tradesman in town*—with the pregnant formulation of the first sentence of D. H. Lawrence's *The Fox*: *The two girls were usually known by their surnames Banford and March.*

6.4 *They* is used to represent certain persons or non-persons mentioned in the context: *the contributors to the collection write as they please / there are many peach trees there . . . some of them lean their slender branches on stone walls / he had taken the body and blood of his Saviour, and they had given him strength*. It is unusual for *they* to refer to both these kinds of nouns at once: *they talked about poets and poetry as if they were something that was real and vital*.

They may also be used in reference to a vaguely indicated group of people: *In Japan they generally marry without love / they make fine knives at Sheffield*, or still more vaguely to mean 'people in general': *they say the government will resign*. Here it approaches the generic value of *we*, *you*, etc., described above (6.1.7 f.), with the difference that *they* does not include the speaker or the person(s) addressed.

They followed by a numeral is now formal: *she thanked him with a smile of intimacy,—as though, of all the party, they two were the only ones who understood what was what*. Natural speech uses instead *the two of them* (see 5.1.4, first paragraph).

In vulgar language *them* is found as a demonstrative pronoun instead of *those*: *the high pitched balls described by the blacksmith as 'them donkey drops'*.

6.5 For reflexive use of personal pronouns: *I took with me some specimens of my drawings*, see below, under *self-forms*.

Self-forms

6.6 These are, in the singular: *myself*, (*thysself*), *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*; in the plural: *ourselves**, *yourselves*, *themselves*. The first element thus corresponds to the form of the possessive pronouns in the 1st and 2nd persons, and to the objective form of the personal pronoun in the 3rd person.—*Oneself* corresponds to *one* as an indefinite personal pronoun (11.7.1).

In dialect speech the form of the first element does not always follow the above distinction, e.g. *bissself*, *usselves*.

6.6.1 These forms are used in apposition to a substantive or pronoun; they then express the concept 'in contradistinction to others', and carry the primary stress: *human numbers are now increasing more*

* *ourselves* is found corresponding to the use of *we* = *I* mentioned in 6.1.7 (2), e.g. *We introduced ourselves and were pleased to learn that our luncheon companions included F.D., the No. 1 French woman player*.

rapidly than at any time . . . Moreover, the yearly increases are *themselves* increasing / a man who *himself* had seen it. They are usually placed after the predicate: *you must ask him yourself* / *I hope to see you happily married yourself* or at least separated from the word they are in apposition to: *the crayfish I had myself caught in the river*. When placed immediately after the subject these pronouns are particularly emphatic, and the effect is often rather mannered: *I explained that I myself could not be sure of the fact on such slight contact* / *we ourselves work it so that the mill comes right into the stackyard* / *the consul was not available and only he himself can issue a new passport*.

In the corresponding usage *oneself* is in apposition not only to *one*: *if one wants a thing done, one had best do it oneself*, but also to the implied subject of the infinitive and gerund: *to do right oneself is the great thing* / *for centuries the Icelanders' existence has depended on self-help; it is scarcely surprising if sometimes this is interpreted as helping oneself*.

6.6.2 Instead of the *self*-form attached to the subject we often find expressions with *own* as an adjective attached to the object, without any emphasis of the ownership being expressed by this: *she makes her own dresses* / *she cooks her own meals* (i.e. *her own* does not have the connotation 'as distinct from those of others', but *own* adds to *she* the connotation 'not others').—Cp. the substantival usage of *own* attached to the object by *of*: *I have a house of my own* / *she has a will of her own*.

6.6.3 The *self*-forms can also be more independent. They may as emphatic forms replace the ordinary personal pronouns 1) after a preposition, 2) after the conjunctions *as*, *like*, *than*, and 3) attached to a substantive or pronoun by *and* and *but*.—For example: *we may regret that the impetus should come from the Soviet Government and not from ourselves* / *there was a photograph of himself on the chimney-piece* / *they are men of like passions with ourselves* // *he is the same age as myself* / *our grandchildren will learn a chemistry based on half a dozen simple laws instead of being compelled, like ourselves, to memorize the idiosyncrasies of the various elements* / *no one will do it better than yourself* // *between that person and oneself, what contact, what community of feeling, could possibly exist?* / *she would have kissed myself and Ford* / *not George but myself*.

For this use of *self*-forms instead of the ordinary personal pronouns

in order to avoid a quandary as to case (*no one knew so well as I/me > myself*), see the end of 6.1.4.

6.6.4 The *self*-forms are used as predicative complements: *the boy of whom I have related was myself*. The value: 'in the usual condition' is particularly common: *it was noticed by the more observant of them that he did not seem altogether 'himself'*.

6.6.5 *Self*-forms as independent subjects were formerly in common use to give emphasis; this is now very rarely the case: *they looked upon him as painters often do writers, . . . with awe because he used a medium in which themselves felt ill at ease* for the usual *they . . . themselves*. In written English however *self*-forms are used as the subject of an infinitive without being attached to a substantive or pronoun: *the men decided that the quickest way of obtaining houses for their families was themselves to build*.

6.6.6 Lastly, *self*-forms are used as reflexive pronouns (i.e. expressing identity of subject with direct or indirect object or the complement of a preposition): *he describes himself as an engineer / I had given myself a very severe training / Providence had seen fit to take his dear mother to itself*. In this usage the *self*-forms carry the primary stress when they convey an idea of contradistinction, otherwise in reflexive usage they have a secondary stress: *the baby can feed him self now as against each pair, detaching themselves from the flocks, choose a nesting-site*.

Sentences such as *the King ordered the soldier to kill himself*, where the reflexive pronoun forms part of a nexus governed by a verb with a different subject, are univocal, in that the reflexive pronoun (with secondary stress) can only be taken to refer to the subject of the nexus in question, not to the subject of the governing verb.

6.6.7 Formerly the ordinary personal pronouns could be used reflexively.—Shakespeare: *As You Like It* IV I 103: *he went but forth to wash him in the Hellespont and being taken with the cramp was drowned* / *Macbeth* V IV 4: *Let every soldier hew him down a bough*.

When the reflexive pronoun is the direct object, only the *self*-form can be used in present-day received English: *I found myself heir to the estate*, but the ordinary personal pronouns may occur as deliberate archaisms: *'D'you know who's in town?' said Lady B. suddenly bethinking her* (Virginia Woolf: *Mrs Dalloway*) / *he repents him of his 'lewd lines' of other days* (*Encyclopædia Britannica* 1955, sub Lodge).

As indirect object the *self*-form is likewise the only expression in received English: *I have left myself little space to write of Huxley's contributions to zoological science*, and the use of the ordinary personal pronouns is again archaic, but in the U.S.A. they also occur colloquially with this function: *I bought me a new hat*.

6.6.8 Only as the complement of a preposition does received English use both the ordinary personal pronouns and the *self*-forms with a reflexive function, all according to whether or not the preposition indicates locality: *we see the stars above us / we want the educated boy to rise above himself // he had Mr Smith beside him / he was beside himself with rage // take the money with you / he was pleased with himself*.

6.6.9 This distinction between ordinary personal pronouns and *self*-forms after a preposition is in some cases not absolutely definite. A prepositional phrase used figuratively is often treated like the localizing usage: *you should not marry beneath you / he had the world before him*; in other cases *self*-forms may be used as in metaphorical senses: *Nothing . . . could break . . . the swaying mantle of silence which . . . wove into itself the falling cries of birds . . .* (Virginia Woolf: *To the Lighthouse* II 4) / *riches take to themselves wings and fly*. How close to each other the two forms of expression may be can be seen in sentences such as the following: *he took it upon himself to punish the lad / the spring . . . seemed to have taken upon her a knowledge of the sorrows of mankind* (Virginia Woolf: *To the Lighthouse* II 6) // *they put the plans before themselves / he carries everybody before him*.

The *self*-forms may furthermore be used in prepositional phrases with a localizing value when a certain element of contradistinction is involved: *he can move his home together with himself / a few women will strike a match towards themselves / A woman servant . . . took the child over to . . . his mother . . . the child nestled by her side . . . she pressed him closer to herself*.

6.6.10 With *among* and *between* we find the *self*-form as a reflexive pronoun when the connection has a reciprocal value (in the exact sense of this term): *they quarrelled among themselves / we must discuss this between ourselves*; otherwise these prepositions are usually followed by ordinary personal pronouns: *they divided the*

money *among/between them*; (this also applies when they are used in the sense 'together': *they had £5 among* (or *between*) *them/between them* the former French colonies in Africa might muster the core of an efficient Congo Civil Service); and *self*-forms are found here only with the sense of contradistinction.

Reflexive Verbs

6.7.1 Only a few verbs are to be found solely in a reflexive construction, and of these several are used only archaically: *absent*, *bestir*, *betake*, *bethink*, *demean*, *ingratiate*, *perjure*, *pride*: *I wish he would bestir himself / he prided himself on his memory*.

6.7.2 Some verbs when followed by a reflexive pronoun have a content differing widely from that existing when they occur in other connections, e.g. *apply*, *avail*, *comport*, *conduct*, *deport*: *he applied himself to the task / he applied for a job / the money is to be applied for the benefit of the poor // you should avail yourself of the books in the library / money does not avail on a desert island*.

6.7.3 Of particular interest are the many cases where a verb used intransitively and used with a reflexive object have roughly the same content; the reflexive expression here has more content, which may be 1) more descriptive or 2) indicating a more intentional action.

The following may be taken as examples of the first: *she got out of bed and began to dress herself* . . . *She put on a black skirt, but chose the bodice of the evening dress which she liked best / he shouted to them to come in shore when they ventured out too far and made them dress when it was time to climb the hot vineclad hill for the frugal mid-day meal*. (Besides, *dress* is used intransitively in the senses 'wear clothes' and 'change': *she dresses plainly / we usually don't dress for dinner*; only the reflexive expression is used for the ability: *he is not old enough to dress himself*.) // *The clouds were moving swiftly now, sinister and certain, gathering themselves*: grey and purple, flecked with white and furred with bronze / *the clouds are gathering*; it will probably rain // *Don't overeat yourself! / he never overeats // I washed myself all over two or three times simply to make the most of knowing where the soap was / I must wash before dinner*.

Examples of the second concept are: *you will have to adjust yourself to the new conditions / the Australian aborigines are not*

able to *adjust* to the changed environment // people do their courting in Hyde Park . . . In Green Park there is a different social atmosphere. People always *behave themselves* there / can't you make your little boy *behave*? // he was very tired and thirsty; but he still *held himself* erect / when danger came, all *held back* // the cutlass *thudded* into the planking . . . the crew *pressed themselves* into the scuppers / the crowd *pressed forward* // that army *proved itself* useful enough to be called the salt of the earth / our supply *proved* insufficient / there is not likely to be a union between Iraq and one or other of her Arab neighbours, until those neighbours *prove themselves* to be more stable allies / the lady *proved* to be a widow.

6.7.4 A fairly frequent difference between the two expressions is that the verb used intransitively has a literal value, but with the reflexive pronoun a figurative or metaphorical value: *how are you feeling today?* / they could but *feel themselves* out of place in these unaccustomed surroundings // he *surrendered* to the enemy / he *surrendered himself* to despair // the ivy *twined* round the tree / memories round which the heart's best affections have *twined themselves*.

6.7.5 In many cases there is little difference between the two expressions as regards content, and the choice is made on grounds of euphony: *I see him shaving before a cracked mirror . . . at all odd moments brushing, cleaning, washing, polishing*, so that he may go smart, as a soldier should, in this world of mud and vermin. Here in the case of several of the verbs an expressed object would have been a reflexive pronoun.—Cp. *the circulation doubled* / *money in the bank earning good interest will double itself* in a few years // *the men organize* and approach with hostile intent / perhaps the time will come when holiday-makers *organize themselves* and demand a sightseer's charter // the important thing is that the preacher has *prepared* / he *prepared himself* to meet his enemies // this bacillus *reproduces* at the rate of hundreds per day / the genes *continue to reproduce themselves* // the long winter *wore away* / the afternoon *wore itself* away in shameful sloth.

In such cases there may be differences between types of language: *the horse reared itself* was once a common form of expression, now the usual form is *the horse reared*; *oversleep oneself* is the common British form, *oversleep* the corresponding American expression.

6.7.6 The difference in content between the reflexive and the passive form of expression is generally clear: activity proceeding from the subject and affecting the object, as against activity affecting the subject proceeding from an expressed or implied agent; *the two strains kept themselves somewhat apart* thus means that the strains endeavoured to keep apart, but a corresponding sentence with *were kept* would imply that circumstances (or a third party) kept them apart. But when the verb involves little action, and the idea of the implied agent in the passive sentence is vague (cp. 1.5.9.3), the two forms of expression may be almost interchangeable as regards content: *I bored myself* (or *was bored*) *to death* / *he fell down and hurt himself* (or *was hurt*) / *I went to revenge myself* (or *be revenged*) / *the vehicle smashed itself* (or *was smashed*) *to match-wood*.—Here the reflexive construction may serve as the univocal expression where the passive construction could be interpreted as the static passive (cp. 1.1.4): *music cannot associate itself with the achievements of human life*; *but its very remoteness from human experience means that it is nearer to the ideal world* / *it has been suggested that the federation should decentralize itself* / *the pool in which light reflected itself* / *little by little he conceived a deep love for the Malays*. *He interested himself in their habits and customs*.—If the subject denotes a non-person, its being the source of the action expressed by the reflexive verb will give the connection more vividness than would be found in the corresponding passive construction; hence it is often used for stylistic effect: *the questions keep asking themselves* / *it was my good fortune to see a house launched and taking to the water . . . Then six boats in line ahead attached themselves and a great adventure began, since the house was to be towed to another island* / 'Alone' *she heard him say, 'Perished' she heard him say . . . the words became symbols, wrote themselves all over the grey-green walls* (Virginia Woolf: *To the Lighthouse* III 1).

Possessive Pronouns

6.8.1 These words (*my, mine; (thy, thine); your, yours; his; her, hers; its; our, ours; their, theirs*) act as the genitive form of the personal pronouns. Apart from *his* and *its* they have two forms; the short form is used before a substantive or substantival element, the long form when no such element follows: *our Government / ours is an area particularly subject to the small farm problem / her skin was as fair as mine, and her unshod feet as white as my own.*

In earlier times there was a different, phonetically governed, distinction between the two forms in the case of *my, mine* and *thy, thine*, *my, thy* being used before a consonant, and *mine, thine* before a vowel (and *h*)—cp. the use of the forms of the indefinite article.—This usage of the two forms of the possessive can be found in archaic language: *Thou shalt love thy neighbour, and hate thine enemy / close, in midst of this thine hymn, my willing eyes / with wings folded I rest, on mine æry nest.*

Uncertainty in the choice of the long or short forms occurs when two possessives linked by *and* precede a substantive: *your(s) and my tickets*; the construction is very rare, and another expression is generally used, e.g. *your ticket and mine.*

The usual formula when concluding letters is *Yours, N.*, generally with the insertion of certain adverbs, e.g.: *Yours sincerely,*)* *N.* A more personal type is *Your affectionate sister, N.* The form *your + adjective + name: Your affectionate N.*—is rare.

6.8.2 The use of the possessive pronouns corresponds broadly to that of the genitive of substantives. Just as the adjectivally used genitive is essentially connected as to content with expressions with *of* (2.6.1 ff.), so we find an alternation between the possessive pronoun and *of + the personal pronoun* in the objective form: *in our midst / in the midst of us // the magnetic needle will turn round till its point will be directed towards the north / the poker is in her hand . . . looking at the point of it . . . she is unconscious of her surroundings // the phrase would be an impertinence if the personal relations of the speaker did not warrant its use / the council recommend cycle tracks*

*) *Sincerely yours* is less formal.

and the compulsory use of *them*. But the possessive pronouns are more widely used than the genitive of substantives, so that a possessive pronoun would often be replaced by *of* + the substantive represented if the latter were to be substituted: *they inspect this crumbled estate and arrange for the sale of its produce / the Portuguese consulate closes at 1.45 p.m., and I do not know its whereabouts / 30 blackbirds with one big male in their centre / we shall not look upon his like again*. Even the objective genitive, which must in the substantives be described as rare (2.6.5), is frequently expressed by the possessive pronoun: *the title . . . its literal translation / when we hear a profound sermon, as often as not we find fault with its delivery / hares are not strictly good for the garden, and I should not much regret their loss / we know the intention of the speaker and can watch its transmission to the listener*. And while with substantives denoting persons it is often possible to use either form of expression where possessive and subjective genitives are in question: *Lord Halifax's speech / the speech of Lord Halifax*, in the case of the personal pronouns the possessive pronoun is usually the only possibility: *his speech; of + the objective form of the personal pronoun with this value is found only in stock phrases: I don't like the look of him / (colloq.): the like(s) of you / I can't for the life of me remember what happened / this blasted Belgian tobacco will be the death of me*.

Only the non-referential *it* cannot have a possessive pronoun as its genitive form: *on the face of it* (= 'judging by appearances') / *the long and short of it was she was jealous*.

Word groups ending with a personal pronoun, such as *all of us*, *one of them*, are more commonly found with the *of*-construction than with the possessive pronoun to express the possessive relation: *the feelings of either of you* instead of *either of your feelings* (2.5.4), in the latter type the initial member of the group is apt to be felt to be attached to the substantive and not to the possessive pronoun.—The same ambiguity will be found when *all* and *both* are followed by a possessive pronoun + substantive: *I beg both your pardons / you're absolutely under both their thumbs / they had spent all their lives in a little town where everybody knew everybody*.

6.8.3 The substantival uses of the possessive pronouns correspond to the substantival uses of the genitive, discussed in 2.7.1 and 2.7.3: *if he (i.e. Pasternak) had quit Russia his would have become an external influence / it was for his sake rather than for hers that she let him go on // the Free Churches are sure that episcopacy must not become*

prelacy, but this determination of *theirs* is shared by virtually every Anglican bishop / he pronounced her the finest actress of *ours* he had seen.

The substantival use of *its*, as well as *theirs* for non-persons in the plural, is very rare, but does occur: *these nations will have attained their maximum development before the rest of the world has attained its* (cit. Evans: A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage) / *the last leaves have lost theirs* (i.e. colour).

6.8.4 In addition to the subjective and objective genitive concepts and the concept of property (e.g.: *your coming* disturbed me / *when he died, she grieved for his loss* / *hedgehogs and their young broods*) the content of the possessive pronouns often consists of a less evident relation (cp. on the genitive, 2.6.5): *the wind blows its hardest* / *the 5th army of the French, prolonged on its left by the British contingent*.

A possessive pronoun + substantive has the association of definiteness; thus in *a neighbour puts out saucers of milk near her back door* the words spaced out in this respect correspond to *the back door* and not *a back door*. In content a similarity will often be found between expressions with the definite article and with the possessive pronoun, where the latter's contradistinctive value (as regards the possessive relation) fades into the background. Before substantives denoting parts of the body, or clothes, the possessive pronoun is commonly used: *he shook his head* / *he put on his hat* / *she had a scarf twisted round her head* / *he passed his hand over his eyes*; but these substantives take the definite article in prepositional phrases when the person in question is expressed in the object of the sentence (the subject in the passive): *I knocked him on the head* / *he was knocked on the head*.

Where both expressions of definiteness are to be found it may be remarked that expressions with possessive pronouns are associated with concepts of material phenomena, while expressions using the definite article have a less tangible, or a generalizing content: *If I keep quiet, the hedgehog proceeds on its way* / *he is drunk, or on the way to it* // *they bowed their heads* / *we can never bow the neck to these cruel invaders* // *he turned his head* / *turn the other cheek* // *the sun was shining in my face* / *I've argued with him till I was blue in the face* // *the minister told us about a wife who forsook her husband for another man. The husband implored the wife to return . . .* / *the Englishman through the ages has gone abroad*;

with The Times in the pocket . . . with the Greek declensions at the back of the mind or Ruskin's Stones of Venice in the hold-all.

6.8.5 In colloquial language the possessive pronouns may express the (kindly) interest of the speaker: *he knows his Shakespeare / the boy has just broken his third window-pane / in the distant metropolis the Major, if I knew my man, would be among his boon companions.*

6.8.6 The contradistinctive value of the possessive pronouns may be stressed by means of *own*: *it is my own house / they did it in their own interests / her skin was as fair as mine, and her unshod feet as white as my own / it is strange that a nation so fond of music as our own should be so little inclined to allow it the rights of intellectual citizenship / the scene had a romance of its own.*—For similarity in content to *self*-forms see **6.6.2**.

Demonstratives

7.1 Demonstratives are 'outline words' which as their distinguishing feature have an association of nearness or distance in place or time in relation to the speaker. They are: *this* (plur. *these*)/*that* (plur. *those*); *here/there*; *hither/thither*; *hence/thence*; *now/then*.

A former threefold distinction as to distance—*this* for what is close at hand, *that* for what is at some distance, *yon, yonder* for what is far distant—has been lost, *yon, yonder* now being found only in dialect and archaic speech.

7.2 *That, those* and *this, these* can be both substantival and adjectival; *that* and *this* can also be adverbial: *the wording is almost the same as that used earlier by Chinese leaders* / *M. Debré's utterances have differed from those of President de Gaulle* / *this had resulted in a score or more of deaths* / *things such as these are the best themes for poets* // *the TITANIC . . . that great vessel sank* / *the 1940s . . . those more drastic days* / *one of the many legends concerns this very point* / *reference was made in these columns yesterday to a paper by Mr P.* // *six weeks . . . that long* / *Sir John will visit his other university every 18 months or so . . . his normally crowded life would in any case have taken him this frequently to Australia.* The adverbial usage belongs almost entirely to colloquial speech.

7.3.1 In substantival use *that* and *this* cannot represent a person. (In the construction *that* or *this* + *is* or *was* + substantive denoting a person: *this is Mr Smith* / *that was my uncle*, the demonstrative pronouns have a content similar to *it*, see 6.3.7.)—Other expressions are used instead: *that one, this one*; *the former, the latter*; *this person, that person*, etc.—For example: *Swami is a Hindu word which seems to be generally applied to any ascetic. This one lived only a few hours by car from Madras* / *a silly child is not the same as a silly man. The first is presumably acting silly, the other is silly by character* / *a communiqué issued to-day by Premier Nkrumah and President Sekou Toure after talks during a five-day visit of the latter to Ghana.*—The plural forms, on the other hand, are used for this purpose: *those are our neighbours* / *she spent an unhappy week-end with his parents. These did not very greatly care for her.*

All four forms are used to represent substantives (except personal denotations) expressing the countable concept: *as for the chicken, that was a little beauty / towards the end of the last century and the beginning of this the piano was popular / I looked at the books on the table. It was not one of those / . . . the masters' hoods of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham. To-day, surely, these are well outnumbered among the parochial clergy by those with variegated linings.*

The singular forms are also used to represent uncountable concepts: *it is the first rule of Sudanese politics to affirm warm affection for the sister Arab nation, and that General Abboud has done / I drink plain mineral water liberally diluted with a little good whisky, when this can be obtained.*

7.3.2 Used adjectivally, the demonstrative pronouns agree in number with the substantival element to which they are attached: *that (this) box; those (these) boxes.* If this is the plural of a statement of measurement, the pronoun may be either singular or plural: *I've been waiting these (this) three weeks / those (that) forty pounds.* Compare also *that few* for the usual *those few*: *There were few people about that day, and that few seemed bound together by a camaraderie of reciprocal esteem.*—In the case of substantives with the same singular and plural form the pronoun indicates the number content of the substantive: *this/these means; that/those fish;—these personnel have been stationed at Habbaniya / all these offspring.*—For combinations with *kind* and *sort* see **2.3.7**.

Usually there are no other determinatives between the demonstrative pronoun and the substantive; but in written English one may find expressions such as *this, the most sex-conscious of all centuries*; cp. also **6**.

7.3.3 Used adverbially, *that* and *this* are to be found in received English before *much* and *many* with a value of something more exact than *so*: *this much courtesy / the chapter-heading SOUNDS is used to cover that much of phonetics which concerns the student of language / he was that much ahead of the game / (immigration:) it is less insulting to impose a total ban than to agree to admit, say, 100 Indians, with the implication that only that many are worthy of acceptance / there aren't that many pleasures around these days.*

In colloquial speech these demonstratives are also found with other adjectives: *the box was this wide / . . . when the language is this far removed from the more ordinary uses, the intonation suggested*

by the metrical pattern is probably as good as any / you shouldn't go *that* far / I was *that* worried I could have cried / ... doubting whether the economy will be stimulated all *that* brilliantly by a new pile-up of cars on the roads.

The dimensions represented by *that* and *this* in the above cases appear from the context or are indicated by a gesture. In uneducated speech *this* and *that* are found as adverbs without the value of 'a certain size', merely as intensive adverbs: *I was that pleased!* Here received English uses *so*.

7.4.1 Used 'indicatingly' of locality, the difference between *that*, *those* for what is distant and *this*, *these* for what is nearer is reasonably clear: 'Look at *that*. There is a submerged rock out there . . . you can see *those* two little whirlpools . . . You see the figure they make? It's like *this* . . .' With a splinter of stone he drew a diagram on the rock / 'That must be Selford. The house where *these* things came from.' He indicated the twenty-seven packing-cases / a certain awakening of the youth of *this* country to the meaning of democracy / How can one be expected to do serious work in *this* house.

As regards time, *that*, *those* are applied to the more distant past or future, *this*, *these* to the present, the recent past or the near future: suddenly he remembered *that* time in Rome, a year after they were married; *those* June nights and the fire-flies . . . / How can we preserve the integrity and re-assert the value of the human individual? . . . A generation from now it may be too late to find an answer and perhaps impossible, in the stifling collective climate of *that* future time, even to ask the question / in *this* third quarter of the twentieth century A.D. . . . I feel a good deal less optimistic than I did when I was writing *Brave New World* / How very nice to see you again after all *these* years / I shall go there one of *these* days / *this* day week.

When these pronouns are applied to something mentally more or less close at hand the distinction between them may become a little more blurred than in the uses given above. In reference to the content of specific words or expressions in a preceding sentence *that* / *those* are used, but in referring to the whole content of what has previously been mentioned *this* / *these* are used.—For example: *I am not mad. It is necessary to realize that / It's the Marquesa de San Estaban.*—*I knew no one of that name / The Queen observed that there was never a fire in the dining-room. She enquired why. The answer was, 'The Lord Steward lays the fire, and the Lord Chamberlain lights it';*

the underlings of those two great noblemen having failed to come to an accommodation, there was no help for it // Mike . . . was a young man who had enjoyed a wholly unromantic friendship with Millicent . . . He had seen her fair hair in all kinds of light . . . he had seen her nose uplifted in all kinds of weather, had even, on occasions, playfully tweaked it with his finger and thumb, and had never for one moment felt remotely attracted by her. But the puppy Hector could hardly be expected to know *this* / An appeal for Army recruiting posters that might attract the 'quieter type of young men' appeared recently in the R.A.O.C. Gazette. The writer believes that potential clerks . . . 'Who don't hanker after the jungle life or charging about in armoured vehicles' would volunteer if they knew what the Corps had to offer them. *This* appeal has vexed and bewildered a reader / One of the many inconveniences of real life is that it seldom gives you a complete story. Some incident has excited your interest . . . and you wonder what on earth will happen next. Well, generally nothing happens. . . . Now, growing old has many disadvantages, but it has this compensation . . . that sometimes it gives you the opportunity of seeing what was the outcome of certain events you had witnessed long ago . . . *These* reflections occurred to me when . . . I went back into the hotel.—The difference is particularly clear in such cases as the following, where *that* refers to a single expression in the context, and *this* to the whole content of the context: 'I met her first at the pictures one Saturday afternoon when it was raining. It was an accident like. She was sitting next me and she dropped her bag and I picked it up and she said thank you and so naturally we got talking.'—'And d'you mean to tell me you fell for an old trick like *that*? Dropped her bag indeed! . . . And when did all *this* happen?'

Anticipating a subsequent expression or the content of a subsequent context, only *this*, *these* are used: *this* I can tell you: if you don't want money but are content to earn just enough to keep body and soul together, then go . . . For you will lead a wonderful life / Friday is the best day for the change-over, and for *this* reason. Parliament rises at four o'clock on Fridays and the new Government can be formed over the week-end in time to meet Parliament on the following Monday / one might be came across *these* words of Jesus Christ: If ye have faith, and doubt not . . .

7.4.2 *That*, *those* and *this*, *these* are to be found in formal English referring to two points in the preceding context, in place of *the* former and *the* latter: work and play are both necessary to health: *this* (or *the* latter) gives us rest, and *that* (or *the* former) gives us energy

(cit. G. O. Curme: *A Grammar of the English Language* III 57.3) / *dogs are more faithful animals than cats; these (or the latter) attach themselves to places, and those (or the former) to persons* (ibid.).—When only the last of two or more points is referred to *this* and *these* are generally used, often stressed by the addition of *latter* or *last*: *at dawn the main outlet from the city was blocked; there remained only the road which crosses the Ebro, and this, too, was threatened* / *three girls are going to sing, one of 20, one of 13 and one of 14—both these pretending to be 15, which is the youngest allowed* / *the organized word thus comes after the organized sentence, and it is with this latter that the grammarian has to do* / *there are collars and stocks—narrow ones for the central churchmen, very narrow ones for the high churchmen and deeper collars for the low churchmen (though these latter are only made to order)* / *you are right in this last phrase of yours* / *the 'Grand Old Man of Golf' himself had supervised our initial equipment . . . two mid-irons, two sand-irons and two cleeks—these last to serve . . .*

The *former* and the *latter* may refer to denotations of both persons and non-persons, and are used both substantivally and adjectivally: *John and William are both hard-working students. The former excels in mathematics, the latter in history* (cit. G. O. Curme: *Gram. of the Engl. Lang.* II 7 VII b) / *the snowmobile . . . a cross between a caravan and an artillery tank . . . proved to lack the comfort of the former, and to embody all the discomforts of the latter* / *unstressed syllables between stressed syllables have the same pitch as the preceding stressed syllable, except in the case of unstressed syllables immediately preceding the last of the stressed syllables. In the latter case the last unstressed syllable is somewhat lower than the preceding stressed syllable.*—These expressions are increasingly often replaced by *the first* and *the second*: *What was paganism in Chatham was atheism in Frederick the Great. And what was in the first patriotism was in the second something with no name but Prussianism* / *Among Christians there are two schools of thought—that which recommends mortification and that which stresses the importance of health. Pascal may be cited as a representative of the first school, and the anonymous author of The Cloud of Unknowing as a representative of the second.*

7.4.3 The first and second of two possibilities mentioned may also be referred to by *the one*, *the other*: *The home and foreign News Editors sit, each like a spider in the midst of his web, with the filaments stretching out, in the one case to all parts of the country, in the other to the limits of the oversea world* / *In Russia the discontented can allow*

themselves to be inspired by the promise of the Communist millennium; or they can reject the promise and the philosophy behind it, believing that *the one* is irrelevant and *the other* spurious. Here the connotation of a specific order often fades into the background: *when body and mind are out of gear (and those twin parts of me live at such close quarters that the one always catches melancholy from the other) I know that . . . / Whether he breeds for sale or to race the progeny himself, a breeder inclines distinctly towards the one or the other of these objectives.* (The unimportance of the order is a value clearly connoted by the corresponding expressions without an article before *one*: *Sometimes, as in French poets and composers, the racial element is extremely pure, and the environment usually corroborates and confirms it: sometimes, as in Heine, the two run counter one to the other / each of us consists of two selves—the self that wishes to save and the self that wishes to spend—and one of them differs as much from the other as a man does from his first cousin.*)—This and that show the same change of content in certain expressions, connoting unimportance of order: *he looked this way and that.*

7.4.4 The distinctive ('selecting') value which is generally associated with *that*, *those* and *this*, *these*, and which emerges clearly when these pronouns are contrasted with each other, can fade into the background, so that these demonstratives may even be attached to proper names and denotations of an entire class: *don't poke me in the eye with that sunshade / just imagine how peculiar you would look if you went to the Royal Enclosure at Ascot wearing one of those black horse-hair hats* (i.e. the type belonging to the Korean national costume) / *now for this daughter of your uncle's / I am always inclined to distrust these philanthropists-on-principle / picknicking on that horrible Scheideck Pass.*—The emotional association connected with this use is generally one of disapproval in the case of *that*, *those*, with a touch of indulgence in the case of *this*, *these*.

7.5 Formerly, instead of a preposition + *that*, *this* adverbs composed of *there* or *here* + a preposition were often used. Of these only *therefore* is now to be encountered in ordinary speech. Apart from this, such compounds are only to be found in legal language and in distinctly literary English: *it* (i.e. overpopulation) *will remain the central problem certainly for another century, and perhaps for several centuries thereafter / she had worn a cream Panama hat with a high crown and a tan ribbon in Seoul . . . and had given a day's enjoyment*

thereby to the whole population / the great picture is a window into Heaven, the great poem catches the inspiration of a Divine message. But herein music stands on a different ground from all the so-called representative arts . . . It cannot, so intimately as they, associate itself with the wonders of nature.

7.6.1 *That* and *those* can be used as determinatives without demonstrative content (and therefore as regards content not in contradistinction to *this* and *these*).

Used substantivally without reference to a substantive in the context, *that* and *those* occur followed by a relative clause, the former with a neuter value, the latter with a common gender plural value: *I salute a man who was good in the essential sense of the word, not in piousness but in compassion. He rejoiced with all the best of a Renaissance figure in that which was here / By itself, a study of motion can tell us almost nothing about that which, in any given instance, is being moved / A 'nasal accent' may creep over the whole of a speaker's utterance without affecting the meaning of that which he says // those who read the new Labour defence statement will have noted that World Government is included as a specific object of the party / There are those who say 'good riddance' / The nature of psychological compulsion is such that those who act under constraint remain under the impression that they are acting on their own initiative.*

This use of *that which* . . . is formal; in ordinary speech it is replaced by expressions using *what*: *Although what I say about Ablaut is partly false, it would be difficult, perhaps impossible, for anyone yet to say about it that which is wholly true / What really counted was the companionship / what our church wants is a preacher who combines eloquence with earnestness.*

The singular forms corresponding to *those who* . . . are in ordinary speech expressions such as *the man who* . . . , *anybody who* . . . , etc., in formal English also *he who*: *the wife of the man who is trying to live up to the ideal . . . , must not demand too much of her husband's time / the effective speaker and writer is he who does not merely catch his sentence-patterns but who grips them.* (For the problem of gender in this connection see 6.2.1.)

7.6.2 Used determinatively, referring to a previously mentioned substantive, or a substantive clearly implied by the context, *that* and *those* are found with a substantival function, followed by a qualifying element, such as a restrictive clause, adjective, participle or

prepositional phrase: *Philip changed his chair for that in which his uncle had been sitting / an amount much lower than that which my mother had estimated / his spoken prose is more distinguished than that most men write / the passengers began to vanish into the public house . . . those who did not drink walked about to stretch their legs / the issues in 1960 are no longer those that existed in 1935 // the letters they wrote, even of those old enough to know better, were extravagantly gushing / that great highland region was built by happenings on the earth's crust so much more remote than those responsible for the formation of the mild country to the south / near full moon the defective edge is that farthest from the sun's direction // as he moves swiftly to the counter his eyes range over those sitting at the various tables / the established Church south of the border and . . . that established north of it / Perhaps the best bathes of all are those captured on a warm summer's evening after a hard day in the hills / all Commonwealth members should accept a Bill of Rights or Convention on Human Rights, such as those now embodied in the Constitutions of Malaya and of Nigeria // the amount of sunlight reflected by the moon is only about one-fourteenth of the total sunlight falling on it. This is a small fraction compared with that for cloud-bound planets / The chief difficulty to be overcome when writing a short book on a vast subject is not that of making and keeping it interesting / in ancient times the moon was a very important body . . . The observations made were of an exactitude far in advance of those in other physical sciences // the South African Government has now announced its intention . . . to release 1,200 of those detained without trial . . . Do not look for any logic in the continued detention of another 400 . . . they are on the same legal footing as . . . those about to be released // the day-to-day life of the islanders differed little in 1939 from that one hundred years previously.*

In the above-mentioned cases *that* and *those* approximate to the *one(s)*. The last expression has not gained quite the foothold in the plural that it has in the singular; thus *that* must be described as formal as against *the one* of ordinary speech, while *those* is the ordinary form, and *the ones* colloquial: *of all the modern cathedrals . . . Chester is probably the one which would first occur to most / There were about 300 journalists at the press conference. It was more orderly than the one he gave in Paris / (by-elections:) of the two results, Harrow is the one that should have Labour more worried / the difference is not merely the one mentioned by the President // a whole crop of executions followed . . . all his friends who had not been quick in making the change-over . . . The ones who did not anticipate death by suicide were hurled*

from the Tarpeian cliff / there must have been double yellow primroses in those far off days, and they may have been the ones we know / the great virtue of the coffee bar . . . is that you can buy a cup of coffee and then stay as long as you like. Indeed, in the ones where more money is obtained by way of a juke box . . . you can get away with ordering a glass of water / the Eastern regiments probably needed the same sort of overhauling as he had given the ones on the Rhine.

When *that* and *those* used as above are qualified by a prepositional phrase with *of*, the content of the combination may correspond to that of the genitive: *pitiful fear, like that of an animal exploring some object of fascination and terror / it is doubtful if he really felt the restraints of the 'Gilded Age' as much as Thackeray did those of Victorian England.* In such cases formal English uses expressions with *that* (*those*) *of*, while natural speech uses the genitive (without a governing noun) of those substantives which commonly possess this form: *her account of Russia turned out to be interestingly different from her husband's / THE PRIME MINISTER is safely on his ship and homeward bound. We must be thankful that his strength, and Lady Dorothy's, lasted out through what must have been an exhausting and exacting tour / For long it has been customary to contrast the policy of the Elysee (i.e. the President's) with that of the Matignon (i.e. the Prime Minister's)*).*—See also 2.7.1 (end).

7.6.3 Determinative *those* followed by a qualifying adjective or participle and denoting common gender plural may as regards content approximate to expressions consisting of the definite article + adj. or partic.: *we had a cordial welcome from those present / the South African Government has announced its intention to release 1,200 of those detained / the chief among those confined was C.B. / two lives have been lost in an unsuccessful attempt to climb Ama Dablam . . . those killed were climbers experienced at high altitudes // the absent are always in the wrong / the culture which is the natural heritage of the nobly born / the War Office issued a list of the missing / among the killed were my old company commander . . . and a hundred more.*—Both expressions denote 'groups of people', the first having the connotation 'group that is part of a larger whole', the second the sense of the group as a category.—See 3.2.3.

*) In a comparative phrase linked by *like* with a possessive pron. + subst. *that of* is sometimes omitted: *his voice rang out like a prophet of the Lord denouncing the ungodly.* This is regarded as slovenly.

7.6.4 Used determinatively, *that* and *those* may also have an adjectival function: *that capacity that the aged have for surmounting their lack of manipulative dexterity / Herbert North who wrote that book on Welsh churches I mentioned / the vicar himself has that look of a bishop-in-the-making / the historic mission of the Jew is to keep steadily before the world that uncompromising spirit of pure reason and absolute justice characteristic of the Hebrew prophets // he was one of those historical figures who died when they had to die / she grew up with the wholesome natural tastes of a lively English girl . . . and instinctively exercised those graces which distinguish the born hostess / they returned to their school and there made a fair division of their plunder among the scholars. But Bellisarius allowed nothing to be given to those few boys who had held back from fighting / The Belgian Chamber passed the Bill for an amnesty to all those Belgians condemned after the war for treason / he had one of those nobly modelled faces of working men / some trinket shops stock modern reproductions of those gold and garnet rings so popular with our grandmothers.*

When used as above, *that* and *those* as regards content approximate to the definite article followed by a substantive + a qualifying element. But while the latter form of expression implies merely definiteness, *that*, *those* + subst. + qualifying element has an association of definiteness + familiarity. This may be the familiarity of what is 'common knowledge' as well as what is known from the context.

The difference between the two forms of expression perhaps emerges most clearly from examples such as the following, where either expression could be used: *he was frequently in love; and sometimes he thought of that girl who had given him a yellow-green apple / 'It's a very nice hat' he replied, in the hearty way husbands do when, for once, they have not had to pay for it / he shows the part played by the weakness of the Emperor and by that obstinacy over unworthy causes which often goes with weakness; and by the ill-fated obsession of the Empress with Rasputin / oh, the weight of that knapsack full of provisions! The mud when it rained! and that bucket you had to wind up from the well / the slip on the stairs and that snub from the general / We then thought of those things which should chiefly occupy mankind: I mean, of happiness and of the destiny of the soul / Even those economists who most distrust Soviet statistics now agree that Russia's total production must have been rising at between 6 and 8 per cent annually in recent years / General ideas are not the language of politicians, at any rate not of those politicians who win the game.*

So

7.7.1 *So* can act as a pronoun referring to the content of parts of the preceding context: 'He puzzles me.'—'Why *so*?' / *this pocket of agricultural land is more or less isolated. It has remained so for nearly two generations / the Icelanders are like the British, only more so / neither of them was ever in love. Indeed, they did not allow themselves to be so / Mark Twain, if an artist of the first order, was only intermittently so / Glamis was already a hospital and remained so till some months after the War / his face even then had its attraction—perhaps more so than ever.*

As the object of a number of verbs, such as *believe, expect, fear* (and *be afraid*), *hope, say, suppose, tell, think*, etc., *so* is used to represent a subject + its predicate: *out of this seeming chaos there emerges a well-mannered and educated person. So the enthusiasts maintain / if she is prepared to marry him she'll presumably say so / he hates you, he told me so.*—As the object of *do*, *so* represents an infinitive (+ extensions) corresponding to a preceding verb (with the elements attached): *when the elders sent me an invitation to visit their village, I decided to give myself a holiday by doing so / if he so wishes he can move his home together with himself, and in fact often does so / Once or twice, when the cricket and stoolball clubs met together, they did so in fancy dress.*—When used in this way *so* approximates to *that* or *this*, which are more emphatic, and to *it*, which denotes something more specific than *so*: cp. *he said it slowly* (the weight is on the expression) / *he said so* (the weight is on the content).—For example: 'He wishes you'd never come out of prison.'—'He told you *that*?' / *in Latin I can . . . vary the word order . . . and achieve slightly different shades of emphasis . . . In Old English I can do this also to a limited extent, but I cannot do it in Modern English without ambiguity.* See also **6.2.7**.

7.7.2 *So* + subject + auxiliary verb expresses confirmation and emphasis (= 'yes, indeed'), while *so* + auxiliary verb + subject signifies that the statement to which *so* refers also applies to the second subject. Compare 'She is clever.'—'So she is' with 'She is clever.'—'So is he' // *here they could indulge their craving for speed. And so they did.* Cp. *And so did we.*

Such

7.8 Used as a pronoun, *such* can correspond to *that*, *those* + a concept of kind or degree. *Such* may refer to previously mentioned persons or things in the singular as well as the plural, or to the content of (part of) the preceding context; it has both an adjectival and a substantival function: *Was G. a great editor? It has been customary to regard him as such / these women constitute perhaps the richest vein in the long missionary tradition, and their collective saga was once captured and put into print in an early novel by R. C. Hutchinson called 'The Answering Glory'. It was the tale of one such woman . . . / several of the ten members of the Executive Council which advises the Governor will be Africans. The Governor will select such men in consultation with party leaders / some languages remain so close to the concrete level that they do not provide for derivation. Such an one is said to be Turkish / hundreds of men climb such ladders each day / Because the English school system is so well established, a retiring headmaster is treated with respect and thanks: such was not the case at the Okuapemman School in Ghana / I explained that I myself could not be sure of the fact on such slight contact.*

The content of *such* may also be determined by what follows (generally introduced by *as*): *He (Marlowe) had lived dangerously and was such a man as could have written his plays / the troupe consisted of members of the ducal house, such of the courtiers as could be made use of and, now and then, of a professional actress or two / this classification . . . has a little relevance in any generalized study of the subject, such as this / It is astonishing that many elementary English grammar books are still cluttered up with such bits and pieces of inflection as still survive in English / the nature of power is such that even those who have not sought it . . . tend to acquire a taste for more.*

Such as can be used in such a way that the concept 'kind' fades very much into the background: *it cooled the ardour of such of the Bishops as looked for a means of smashing the Irish party. Here such as approaches those who.* The expression is literary, and less definite than *those who*.

Same

7.9.1 *Same* occurs almost exclusively after the definite article and demonstrative pronouns. Only in commercial English is it used alone: *To dry-cleaning suit, 7s. 6d.; to repairing same, 5s.* (Advanced Learner's Dictionary).

7.9.2 After demonstrative pronouns *same* is emphatic: *the busy counter clerk smiled with that indulgence that Post-Office counter clerks reserve for old age pensioners . . . that same clerk . . . / The French electorate is wonderfully unpredictable in detail. Those same voters whose choice may in the end be swayed by superannuated questions like subsidies for Church schools can only with difficulty be tucked into neat percentages / Nine months ago Mr Harold Macmillan looked to be among the ranks of the great British Prime Ministers . . . Today he is a different man. This same session of Parliament has included the tragedy of Aneurin Bevan / Two great wars habituated the people of England to a rigorous discipline . . . But these same wars had other consequences.*

7.9.3 In a pronominal function *the same* may, like *such*, be used adjectivally or substantively, representing part of the content of the preceding context, or be determined by a following element, generally introduced by *as* or *that* (see 10.8.2);—*the same* signifies identity.—For example: *I gave your brother £100, and I'll give you the same amount / A happy New Year!—The same to you / the same answer as before / at the same time as the funeral at Kirriemuir an open-air memorial service was held in the Old College Quadrangle of Edinburgh University / this is the same tune as we heard yesterday / this 4th Division had only begun to detrain at the same hour that General Sir John French was reading that Sunday message which prompted his immediate retirement from before Mons / at the window were the same sort of white lace curtains which Aunt Louisa put up at the vicarage in summer.*

So(-and-so), such(-and-such)

7.10 *So* used adverbially and *such* adjectivally may denote a specific, but anonymous figure: *bargains in the sales always seemed to end in so many pounds 19s. 11¹/₄d. / the record shows that on such a date he left early.*

So-and-so and *such-and-such* can be used in the same way: *try as hard as you can to say the vowel so-and-so / so many individuals, of such-and-such quality, distributed in such-and-such quantities / he claims to have originated such-and-such a theory.* These can also be anonymous substitutes for proper names: *there must be something in it if Professor So-and-So and Professor Such-and-Such both say the same thing / whenever the brewery companies modernize an ancient house, they advertise it to the world as the So-and-so hotel.*

The Definite Article

8.1.1 The definite article is generally unaccented, and is pronounced /ðə/ before words whose pronunciation begins with a consonant: *the book, the house, the union*, /ði/ before words whose pronunciation begins with a vowel: *the apple, the hour*. When accented it is pronounced /ði:/; this is indicated by underlining, and in print by italics or the like; this denotes that what is mentioned in the context in the highest degree deserves the description succeeding the article: *Dr X is the specialist in kidney trouble / would even the most austere 'new critic' assert that he would sacrifice 'Huckleberry Finn' to save 'The Ambassadors' or 'Moby Dick'? There is the great American novel and American epic. For that alone, Mark Twain deserves the boom that he is now enjoying.*

8.1.2 A special use of *the* is found before comparatives, where it denotes a certain degree: *he will feel the better for it / if Hill never mentioned the topic of love to her, she only credited him with the finer modesty for that omission*. Often two such phrases are placed side by side, the signification being that the degree of the second phrase varies with the first: *the more the merrier / the more he gets the more he wants*.

8.2.1 *The* derives from a weakening of the demonstrative pronoun, and the definite article can in content approach the value of the demonstratives mentioned in 7.4.1, second and third sections, viz. refer to a circumstance inherent in the context or situation; *the* then corresponds to *the . . . in question*: *most authors, when engaged on a work of fiction, are so absorbed in it that they can think of nothing else, and when they give up for the day, exhausted, look upon the rest of it with impatience as so much time lost / he could devise something of the sort himself / I found the residents dull and behind the times / the greatest authors of the day*.

8.2.2

The Countable		The Non-countable	
individual single phenomenon — def. art.	identified specimen of a class + def. art.	identified section of 'mass' + def. art.	non-limited 'mass' — def. art.
<i>Nero / Earth*</i>)	<i>the king / the earth goes round the sun</i>	<i>the charity of Paul / 'Heap the earth over the roots!'</i>	<i>we need charity / cover the roots with earth</i>

The commonest value of the definite article may be said to be to mark the identified specimen(s) of a kind where countable concepts are concerned, and to mark the identified quantity where uncountable concepts are concerned: *the book(s) on the table / the milk in the jug.*

If a phenomenon is identified as 'belonging' to someone there may be vacillation between the definite article and possessive pronouns: *'Now' said the doctor, and stepped forward. 'We must begin by draining the leg of blood.' 'The' leg, not 'his' leg, Anthony was thinking . . . 'Take his foot,' Dr Miller ordered, 'and lift the leg as nearly vertical as you can' / his eyes were closed and the lower jaw sunken / he escaped with rings valued at 10 guineas. In his haste to get away he dropped a ring valued at £20 / the early Jewish settlers in South Africa were well on the way to obliteration as a separate body until the mass immigration which followed the discovery of gold and diamonds brought many thousands of Jews into the country.*—The definite article here indicates a greater degree of detachment as to the matter in question.—See also 6.8.4.

8.3 In the case of a series of co-ordinate nouns an article preceding the first may be understood in the case of the following, especially if the concepts are felt to be connected: *these islands are celebrated for the extent and variety of their marine curiosities / the sea and sky looked all one fabric / the electors and kings of Saxony / the papers which the husband and son of the dead woman took away with them.* But if a distinction is to be expressed the article is repeated: *This Power Elite . . . influences the thoughts, the feelings and the actions of virtually everybody / the worship of games gives those who do not excel in games the leisure and the opportunity to cultivate their own tastes.*

*) See 8.5.1, second section, last example but three.

8.4.1 Since proper names denote 'individual single phenomena' they generally lack the article: *Europe, London, Peter*. The addition of the definite article is often a consequence of their usage as appellatives: *the Dorothy Perkins* (i.e. a variety of rose).—Examples: *if you stand at the extreme south of Cumberland, you can see both the highest and the lowest acres of the county: Scafell Pike and Hodbarrow Hollow // Mr Crossman is the Burke of our day / the Beaverbrook of fifteen years ago is shown in Low's drawing / the best group in the show consists of canvases by the late Christopher Wood, Sickert, Duncan Grant, and Matthew Smith. The Sickert is remarkable because of the subdued lighting through green shutters, the Grant and the Smith through a frank statement of pattern and form in strong colour, the Wood through classical repose and subtle harmony.*

There are many exceptions from this rule however, foreign usage of the article being reflected in the English expression: *the Hague, the Tyrol / he left for Bonn-on-the-Rhine*—or the proper name having arisen from what was originally an adjectival phrase: *the Argentine < the Argentine Republic* (used instead of the noun *Argentina*) / *the impression gained at the Tate during the last week of the Picasso exhibition (< the Tate Gallery).*

The most important groups of one-word proper nouns with the article are mentioned below.

8.4.2 Most geographical names of regions have no article: *Asia, Egypt, Sicily*, but a fairly considerable number have, or can have, the article: *the Crimea, the Saar, the Sabara, the Sudan, the Tyrol*, etc.—Examples: *four men have claimed to exercise the supreme authority in the Congo / there are now fewer than 200 doctors left in Congo / the Lebanese Government had decided to regard any attack on Jordan by Israel as an attack against the Lebanon / Botha and Smuts were the rulers of the Transvaal / the Communist party in the Ukraine.*

8.4.3 Plural names of regions, archipelagos, and mountain ranges have the definite article: *the Americas, the Midlands, the Netherlands; the Hebrides, the Orkneys, the Scillies; the Alps, the Cheviots, the Pennines.*

8.4.4 The names of seas and rivers have the definite article: *the Atlantic, the Baltic, the Mediterranean; the Euphrates, the Severn, the Thames*. In the names of towns of the type *Newcastle-on-Tyne, Stratford-on-Avon* the article before the name of the river is omitted. In addition it is often omitted in enumerating river names: *the region*

between the upper waters of *Euphrates and Tigris* / a network of canals, connecting *Humber, Severn, Mersey and Thames*.—Cf. 8.5.7.

8.4.5 Names of hotels, restaurants, clubs, cinemas and theatres have the definite article: *the Savoy, the Cecil, the Athenaeum, the Lyceum, the Alhambra*.

8.4.6 Names of ships and the like have the definite article. If they are attached to a preceding appellative in the definite form the article may or may not be used.—Examples: *in the case of the 'Queen Mary' the company pays a premium of £60,000 per annum / our picture shows the 'Coronation' running at speed through Hertfordshire on a trial run to London / the rebel battleship the España was sunk / the battleship España sank after an explosion / Rear-Admiral Byrd's barquentine Bear of Oakland left Boston on Monday*.

8.5.1 Identified appellatives in the singular with countable associations have the definite article: *shut the door!*

When used of a phenomenon conceived of as 'unique' they have the content of proper names: *the Armada, the Bible, the Channel, the City, the king, the sun, the Tower*, etc.—One may perhaps date the beginning of the real influence of French from the time of *the Conquest* / some of the so-called 'seas' extend to the other side of *the moon*, unseen from *the earth* / the opening of Finland House in *the Haymarket* last week was graced by the presence of the Finnish Minister of Labour / *the Strand* was lined with houses by the middle of the 16th century // the exhibition in *the Queen's Hall*. This can lead to the omission of the article: *heaven, hell, paradise, Parliament, purgatory*, etc.—*the great picture is a window into Heaven* / the first lunar base will have to be kept supplied from *Earth*, at an enormous cost in rocket fuel / during World War II the 'tubes' were extensively used as air raid shelters . . . the short spur from *Strand* to Aldwych being permanently closed to traffic // his burial in *Poets' Corner* came as a recognition / the chief halls devoted to concerts are the Royal Albert Hall and, formerly, *Queen's Hall*.

Among such appellatives lacking the article when they act as proper names may be mentioned in particular names for members of a household: *baby, cook, father, mother, nurse, uncle*: *Uncle* took us to see his old friend.

Thus also terms denoting what communities such as schools, etc. have come to regard as institutions: *break, ball, prayers, prep., term*, etc.: *I haven't a lesson till break / to be in Sixth Form . . . is something / we got back to kennels*.—This also applies to *breakfast, dinner*, etc., as denoting a meal regarded as 'a regular event' (i.e. with no conception of its course or nature): *lunch is over / he went out after supper*. Cf. *the dinner was a success / the dinner passed off very agreeably*.

8.5.2 Appellatives in the singular used to represent the whole of the class in question have the definite article: *the 20th century is the age of the child / his back bent as though under the infliction of the knout / the rat is larger than the mouse*. This does not apply to *man* and *woman* however: *the primary stars have blazed on in un-diminishing midnight lustre during Man's brief history*.—See also **2.3.2(2)**.

As a special case of the above may be mentioned names of musical instruments, in cases such as *play the violin (flute, piano, etc.)*.

8.5.3 The definite article is now quite often used instead of the indefinite article (**12.8**) before names for weights and measures, and the like: *10s. the bushel / these boots are £5 the pair*.

8.5.4 Appellatives in the plural connoting the whole of the kind concerned have no article: *animals have no intellect only instincts / we desired to embark upon that quiet stream men call reverie / Europeans of the new stone age possessed a wolflike breed of dogs*. If they are to be distinguished from other kinds however the article is used: *different trees vary in their responses to fertilization . . . The conifers, especially, do not require rich soils / in the eighteenth century, when logic and science were the fashion, women tried to talk like the men / Fashion Among the Primroses*.—*That there are fashions in flowers may seem deplorable to the purist gardener*.

8.5.5 When appellatives in the plural are used of a number of phenomena of the class in question, the noun without the article connotes non-identification, and the noun with the article identification: *his father's eyes filled with tears . . . P. was embarrassed at seeing the tears had come into his eyes / after listening for a little to what people were saying at the club, he went home / I wonder if it was Strauss or Elizabeth Schumann that the people came to hear!*

(i.e. those people who were present) / *traffic had to be diverted because roads were under water*. In such contexts, where there is no explicit identification, both forms of expression are often possible.—Note that in the case of nouns such as *circumstances*, *conditions*, *events*, *matters*, *things*, etc. the definite article is lacking even where an identifying concept such as 'on the occasion in question', 'concerning the matter in question', etc. seems implied: *conditions were abnormal, but we proceeded / the rush of events / the shop was a great success . . . but things had not always gone so*.

8.5.6 Appellatives in the singular which have a countable value in their chief usage, may be found without a determinative, thus acquiring an uncountable association; this usage stresses the characteristic quality or action inherent in the substantive: *when war broke out S. still had his duties to perform / in August, 1296, Edward I came to the Abbey of Scone . . . Even at this date legend had begun to gather round the 'Stone of Destiny' / school begins at 8 a.m. / Evie was never very much for bed*.

Thus the names of seasons have no article when the nature of the season is to be expressed, but have an article when expressing the period of the year: *a well-cut cassock is a seemly garment, affording warmth in winter and such as will hide a pair of shorts in the hottest days of summer / before winter sets in // the summit conference scheduled to take place in the spring / in the winter, before the dawn, he was to be seen, seated at his writing-table, working by the light of the green reading-lamp*.—A similar connotation of nature or character is to be found in the terms *night*, *day*, *morning*, etc. used without an article in describing the transition from one to another: *night came / day broke*.—Cf. *came the night—off with the grey tie and on with the black*.

In the case of words such as *bed*, *chapel*, *church*, *college*, *hospital*, *prison*, *school*, *table*, etc., prepositional phrases occur with or without an article before the noun, the former having an association of locality, the latter of the function characteristic of the noun: *at the table in the shade of the great fig tree on the terrace, Anthony settled down with determination to his food / they were at table when we called // in chapel the boys are taught to like the lowest place best / 13 passengers were taken to hospital. Six of the injured people were detained in hospital / a farmer had sent one old cow into market as beef and netted £75 . . . our obvious line was to buy two or three calves, and fatten them for market / I arrived at school without the overcoat*.

This also applies to *town* as the object of *leave*, and as a complement of *from*, *in*, *into*, *out of*, *to*: *the firm has got a big estate two miles from the town / he has just returned from town / in recent days Londoners have seen signs of Nigeria's transition from Colonial to Dominion status. Everywhere in town there have been groups of Nigerians.*

In many cases a noun in a prepositional phrase has a literal value when it has the definite article, and a figurative or less exact value when the article is lacking: *notes printed at the bottom of the page / he is a good man at bottom // an Algerian solution submitted to referendum sometime in the future / Mr Phillips will in future attend meetings of the Shadow Cabinet (i.e. 'from now on') // why on earth / set the teeth on edge / for three hours on end / close at hand / go to sea, etc.*—compare also *at night* and *in the night*.

Lastly, the same distinction exists in a number of cases between the noun with the article and the noun without the article as object; a verb and its object without the article often merge into a single concept: *the schooner would not be allowed to enter the harbour till it was certain no other member of the crew was affected / Southampton's tidal advantage means that large vessels can enter harbour at any state of the tide // at ten he left home, and became a shopboy in a drapery establishment at Stanford / the Legislative Council has adjourned until October and the more prosperous legislators have taken train to the coast to soothe themselves in the Indian Ocean // cast anchor / give ear to / lose heart / keep house / take root / take ship / lose sight of / turn tail / make way for, etc.*

8.5.7 In juxtaposition of two or more substantival elements the definite article is often omitted: *Crown or Parliament—that was the choice / the differentiation of past, present, and future is absent from many of these verbs / race relations are a question of major significance, not only between white and coloured, but equally as important between Indians and Fijians / he stood firm and unflinching for King and Country / the distance from firn to tongue is so short that these glaciers could only rarely be considered as highways // from beginning to end / husband and wife / live from hand to mouth / unable to make head or tail of it / from top to toe, etc.*

This also applies to terms of direction such as *left*, *right*; *north*, *east*, etc., which used as nouns have the definite article: *turn to the left / a site bounded by water on the east*, but lose it when juxtaposed: *from right to left / at that point the river-course turns*

from west to north / the population shifted the greatest weight from south-east to north-west.

8.6.1 Uncountables do not have the definite article except when there is an identified limitation of the concept in question: *Architecture is fighting a battle for its life / the quality best described as character should not be confused with individual buildings but related to the whole sequence of the architecture of a particular nation // character in art is essential to check excesses / the art of medicine is sometimes called the healing art // life is sweet / the life lived in the sweat of the face // the rise of puritanism / the Satan-haunted popular Puritanism of a Bunyan // more or less deeply buried in this land-mass lay substances which were to have the greatest significance for its future history . . . First it was copper and the tin of Cornwall.*

The limitation is often implicit: *This climate, like the food is always lukewarm or tepid (i.e. 'of this country') / he will not resume his travels. He confesses that he has enjoyed the life.* Often both views are possible in that an explicit limitation may not necessarily apply to the noun in question: *Miss Markova had more novel tidings of what is happening to ballet in the United States*, or the difference between the non-limited and the limited concept may seem negligible: *when truth is nothing but the truth, it's unnatural* (where *truth* means roughly 'the absolute truth', and *the truth* 'the truth concerning this particular matter'). Cf. also *what seems to me chiefly remarkable in the popular conception of the poet is its unlikeness to the truth.*

8.6.2 An implicit limitation of this kind leads to the use of the definite article before names of languages where a text under discussion is concerned, or the like. Compare *translate from English into French* and *a book translated from the French / his natural language was Spanish; he spoke English like a foreign language, rather slow, with a slight hesitation, but with a sad, plangent sonority lingering over from the Spanish.*

8.6.3 Names of diseases are uncountables, and have no article: *cholera is abroad / a twinge of gout in the toes / deaths due to influenza / her skin was white . . . for a moment leprosy occurred to me / rickets affects the bones / suffer from scarlatina.* In a few cases however there is a vacillating use of the article: *a district infected with (the) plague / shunned like the plague / I got (the) flu*

badly. This applies particularly to names of diseases in the plural: *measles is contagious / she grew feverish—she was going to have the measles.*

8.7.1 Nouns and substantival phrases which without attributive qualifiers have no definite article acquire one when such elements are attached: *primeval Britain was disturbed by the arrival of the first farming peoples / about 3,000 years ago the mid-Bronze Age peace was broken in southern and south-eastern England // England is a collection of families, menaced on the one hand by the tyranny and on the other hand by the licence of modern society / in the December of 1664 they went so far as to elect a committee of twenty-two men // they had reduced John to the nakedness and beggary which were his due / Christianity could not settle down into the pagan simplicity that the man was made for the work, when the work was so much less immortally momentous than the man.*

In certain cases however there is no article even though such elements are present; the most important types are given below.

8.7.2 Proper names with a restrictive (distinguishing) adjective attached have the definite article: *the earliest London / the new Turkey / the elder Pitt.*—Examples: *How's one to see the real India? / it is a very long road from the medieval Lateran to the modern Lambeth // How would this fondness for concrete or abstract expressions apply, for example, to the language of Marlowe and the young Shakespeare, and what should we learn by a comparison of both these with the language of the mature Shakespeare? / The Young Goethe had high spirits, animation and a cheerful temper.*

When the phrase acquires the value of a new proper name there is no article: *Merry Old England / early London / West Hampstead / Eastern Germany / Bloody Mary / Tiny Tim / young Stephen / little John.*—Examples: *Ancient Ireland venerated its poets / generations . . . went to axe an inheritance from the forests . . . cutting Roman Britain into the likeness of medieval England / Uncle took us to see 'Old Tom' Morris.*—Thus also: *at battalion headquarters it was like old times.*

The article may furthermore be omitted in this type to express (benevolent) interest: *the fall is that of famed Niagara, the roar awe-inspiring / the rebel forces seem to have made too hasty an attempt*

to extend their lines from *deserted Guernica* to the sea / a remarkable book attempting to describe *new China* // *poor George* looked sixty / when *Jess Conrad* kissed 11-year-old *Susan Pinkney* on the stage of the Royal Cinema on Wednesday evening, *pretty Yvonne Kersting* broke down.

When the style is literary or objective the definite article is used here: *the famous Thorney*, on which the Abbey of St Peter was founded / take her into the dark *Hades* with him, like *Francesca* and *Paolo* // Who was the lucky boy? Could this possibly be *the great Bernard Darwin*? / the abler editors followed the lead of *the famous C. P. Scott* of the *Manchester Guardian* / the venerable *Bede*.—This also applies to post-positive adjectives attached to names: *Alfred the Great* / *Harold the Fairhaired*.

8.7.3 A term denoting profession before a proper name usually has a limiting value, and the phrase therefore has the article: *the poet Gray* / *the publisher William Pickering*. Some nouns of this kind however may be more permanently linked with the name, and act as a title; in such cases the article is omitted: *Nurse Cavell* / *Guard Richardson*;—examples: *Driver Knox* was killed in the accident / I could not refuse *Farmer Brown's* present.

In the case of actual titles + proper names the use of the article is vacillating: most English titles and some foreign have no article: *Dr Johnson*, *Lord Aberdeen*, *Queen Victoria*, *Prince Charles*, *King Edward*, *Captain Scott*, *Father Brown*; *Monsieur Laporte*, *Signor Mussolini*;—examples: *Chief Lewanika* attended the Coronation of *Edward VII* / *Private Ogguwinki* can pride himself that his canings were once a matter of debate in the *Imperial Parliament*.

Many foreign titles and some English normally have the article: *the Czar Peter*, *the Emperor Charles*, *the Grand Duchess Olga*, *the Caliph Omar*; *the Reverend Joseph Fergusson*;—examples: *Montpensier married the Infanta Fernanda* / *the Honourable Andrew Erskine* was a poetaster with shivers of genius.

In the case of many titles, such as *Baron*, *Baroness*, *Count*, *Countess*, *Lady*, *Pope*, *Princess*, etc., the use of the article varies. The form with the article is often the more formal: *The wedded pair* drove down to *Windsor* . . . *They were accompanied by their suites*, and, in particular, by two persons—*the Baron Stockmar* and *the Baroness Lebzen* / it was something more than a mere matter of private interest that the bedroom of *Baroness Lebzen* should have been next door to the bedroom of the *Queen* / *Lord Palmerston* cited *Baron Stockmar* as the

only absolutely disinterested man he had come across in life // I asked if I might see *the Signora Niccolini* / two tall, strapping young fellows entered the hall . . . I shook hands with the pair and then *Signora Niccolini* said something to them and they went away.

8.7.4 The combination adjectival element + appellative, such as the spaced words in the following sentences: *the West End developed along the Oxford road* (i.e. the road to Oxford) / *the Marble Arch* was intended as a monument to Nelson,—may acquire the value of a proper name.—Other instances: *the East End*, *the Ghost River*, *the Gilgat Ravine*. This can lead to the loss of the article: *Salisbury Plain*, *Whitehall*, *Charing Cross*, *Strand Lane*, *Putney Common*, *Westminster Bridge*, *Grosvenor Square*.—Examples: *George Grieves of Dovecote Farm*, *Elwick, County Durham*, pleaded guilty to stealing cattle from his father / walk across the park from *Marble Arch* in the direction of Kensington.

The use of the article in this type is in many cases vacillating: (*the*) *Mansion House*, (*the*) *Guildhall*, (*the*) *Marylebone Road* (thus in the case of many names ending in *Road*), (*the*) *Tower Bridge*, (*the*) *Green Park*, (*the*) *High Street*.

Names of buildings of this type normally have no article when the first element is a proper name: *Lancaster House*, *Ripon Cathedral*, *Buckingham Palace*, *Westminster Abbey*; otherwise they have the article: *the British Museum*, *the Crystal Palace*.—Names of hotels, theatres, etc. have the article however, irrespective of the nature of the adjectival element: *the Globe Theatre*, *the Apollo tavern*;—*the Van Dorth Hotel at Singapore* was far from grand.

8.7.5 The names of most newspapers and magazines are combinations of an adjectival element + an appellative; they are therefore referred to with the article: *the Daily Telegraph*, *the News Chronicle*, *the Yorkshire Post*. As a whole, the use of the article in referring to newspapers and magazines follows the customary usage as regards the words concerned: *John Bull*, *Punch* (proper names); *Truth*, *Life*, *Time*; *Tit-Bits*, *Comic Cuts*; *the Spectator*, *the Star*, *the Scotsman*; *Tiger Tim's Weekly*; *The Times* (i.e. 'the present times' as opposed to 'times past' and 'the future').—Examples: *the Daily Mail* led the way with a million sales a day / *The Pick of Punch* / the cost of each copy of *The Times* is something like 5d.

A preposed genitive or determinative drives out the article before these names: *you dropped your Times* / *tomorrow's Times*.

8.7.6 When *next* + *day, week, month, time*, etc., used adverbially, is connected with a point of time implicit in the context, the phrase has no definite article: *sometimes he will bring out a pre-historic motor-bicycle and disappear for a half-day . . . Next morning, soon after dawn, he will be seen gliding through the orchard as usual / I wish I were a great, great actress . . . But then . . . I shouldn't have the fun of never knowing . . . where we're going next week / I offer you five hundred francs to let me take your place . . . You can explain next day that you missed the train.*—But if these phrases have a connection with an explicit point of time the article is used: *one day . . . I heard hoofs behind me, turned, and there was my father! . . . father said we should go home the next day / the first day a woman, who seemed too dazed to speak, brought us food; the second day another woman brought it . . . she could hardly speak . . . something terrible must have happened to her too . . . the next morning we were taken away again.*—Next in the latter type corresponds roughly to following, which always has the article: *the following day he drove up.*

Compare the corresponding use of the article with *last* + similar indications of time: *last night, last Sunday;—What have you done with the tea-cosy I gave you last time I came up?*—these are connected with an unexpressed point of time, while corresponding phrases with the article connect the point of time with the other elements of a series.

A corresponding use of the article is to be found with the names of the days of the week: *when I left her she said: 'Come and see me on Tuesday . . .'* So, *on Tuesday but rather late, I went / we reached Rome the following Wednesday and stayed there over the Sunday.*

8.7.7 Combinations of adjective + appellative in the plural have the definite article if they have a distinctive value: *the low-level bombing raids on the German dams*; otherwise not: *present trends suggest that it would be unwise to plan ahead / free entry is, in present circumstances, the more difficult case to get accepted by the public / we found recent fashions in France and England identical / the 'Financial Times' ordinary share index turned out to be a far better barometer of Conservative electoral chances than all the public opinion polls / young people are a nuisance.*

The article is not used with such combinations including *most*: *most people think so / most men who have lived in provincial India know something about blackbuck.*—In American English there is

apparently still a distinction between this usage of *most* (meaning 'nearly all'), and *the most* with comparative value: *The Shepherdes Calendar . . . May, which has the most ten-syllable lines* (John Thompson: *The Founding of English Metre*). In British English the latter form of expression is infrequent: *Dr Martin . . . told the World Federation . . . that many men had an inner compulsion to work and a feeling of guilt when they were not working. Consequently the most suicides were during holidays and other free time* (Manchester Guardian Weekly Aug. 18, 1960).—Cf. 8.9.2 f.

Note the difference between the above-mentioned adjectival value of *most*: '*most respectable people* and the adverbial value in *the 'most respectable people* (superlative of 'respectable'), and *they are most respectable people* (= 'very respectable') / *I left my work in the most capable hands of my assistant.*

8.7.8 Combinations of adjective + noun with uncountable association have the definite article when the adjective has a restrictive (distinguishing) value: *nothing could be more arbitrary than to divorce from each other the prehistoric man, the modern savage and the civilized man*; but if this concept is not attached to the phrase the article is lacking: *the time that prehistoric man first domesticated a wild canine to serve as his hunting aid or cave guardian is unknown*. There are many such phrases: *human history, human nature, English literature, European architecture*, etc.—Examples: *the picturesque wooded skyline of English landscape / the exhibition of Nigerian tribal art / toughened glass will stand a temperature of 300 degrees centigrade on one surface with the other at ordinary atmospheric temperature / Gibbon's perfidious irony in dealing with early Church history.*

8.7.9 A noun limited by a succeeding prepositional phrase has the definite article: *the Bank of England / Seoul, the capital city of Korea / Owen was born in 1771 at Newtown, Montgomeryshire, the son of a local saddler and ironmonger / the Ambassador at Paris*.—Nouns denoting kinship or title however generally have no article in these combinations when they are in apposition to a personal name: *Henry Cavendish, eldest son of Lord Charles Cavendish / Mr Patrick Lindsay, second son of the Earl of Crawford / Victoria, grandmother of George V / Mr E. A. A. Shackleton, son of the explorer / Dr John Arthur Robinson, Bishop of Woolwich / William, Duke of Normandy / Sir*

Montagu-Pollock, British Ambassador in Switzerland / Dr Schacht, President of the Reichbank // Señor Azana, the President of the Spanish Republic, is already in France / young Wedderburn, the son of Wedderburn the eye specialist.

Verbal nouns the object of whose verbal concept is attached by *of* have the definite article: *the celebration of the Coronation*. If no specific case is referred to the article may be lacking: *there is also a time-off dress, white and cool, with a full skirt, and there are dark blue slacks with a white blouse. Wearing of the uniform is not compulsory except for the march past / the talk turned on censorship of films.*

Nouns + a limiting prepositional phrase may lack the article when they form a predicative complement, and after *as* denoting identity: *Mr Heathcoat Amory was guest of honour at the annual luncheon of the National Union of Manufacturers / General Franco is head of the State / the splendid old Schloss Rapperswill, on the shores of the Lake of Zürich, is headquarters of the Swiss Castles Association / Mr de Valera was not at home. As president of the League Assembly duty kept him at Geneva.*

The noun lacks the article in a large number of stock combinations of preposition + noun + *of*: *in case of, in place of, on top of, within reach of, in sight of, in view of, by way of, etc.*

8.8.1 A proper name in the genitive + complement has no article; this is generally also the case when such a combination has become a place-name: *Gray's Inn, St Paul's Cathedral, St James's Palace, St Clement's well*; the article may however insinuate itself; thus we find both *the future of St James's Theatre was on Tuesday the subject of questions in both Houses of Parliament* and *his actor-management of the St James's theatre was marked by the same boldness*, influenced by the general use of the article before the names of theatres.

8.8.2 An appellative in the plural linked with two or more succeeding nouns follows the same usage of the article as the corresponding phrases in the singular: *the rivers Severn and Avon* (cf. *the river Severn*) / *lakes Huron and Ontario* (cf. *lake Huron*) / *trams on routes 68 and 70 were held up yesterday by the breakdown of a horse-drawn cart / the speeches of Lords Morrison and Boothby.*

8.9.1 When an adjective is used substantively it usually has the definite article (see **3.2.1**): *on the whole / he frequents the society of*

the polished / a concert over the wireless; and the article is often indispensable even where a noun would not have it: *the distinction between wrong-doers and the righteous*.—The omission of the article often means that the word in question is to be regarded as a noun: *the triode valves used in wireless contain gas at low pressure*.

The article is lacking in a great many stock expressions consisting of the preposition *at* + a superlative: *at best, at first, at last, at least, at most, at worst*. Some of these phrases are also found with the article, particularly in more exact statements^{*)}: *if, in a dictatorial state, a man lacks a party card, he figuratively stinks and must be treated as an inferior at best and, at the worst, an untouchable / you may spend £5 at the most*.

8.9.2 The use of the definite article with adverbs in the superlative stresses the comparative value: *those who remember the longest to-day, grieve the most / it is the brightest hours that flash away the fastest*.—Cf. *in chapel the boys are taught to like the lowest place best / what I most need is a haircut*.

8.9.3 *Most* has no article when it has plural associations: *most of them had been officers in the war / the rootcrops are most of them rich in vitamins*. Otherwise *most* used substantively, adjectively, and adverbially has no article when it has an absolute value (= 'practically the whole', 'almost entirely'), and has the article when the phrase has comparative value: *he spent a night that he imagined to be sleepless, although in truth he slept during most of it / we must pay most attention to what the man is doing now / all I remember is the happiness and the two playfellows who were most with me // he could not tell which had made the most fuss / a man of genius takes the most after his mother / (the Homicide Act of 1957) Among those who set about it with the most gusto was Lady Asquith*.—See also **8.7.7**.

^{*)} Compare the fact that prep. + superlative + noun normally has the definite article: *with the greatest pleasure*, but the article may occasionally disappear when the phrase is not used with its exact value: *even at first glance the kitchen didn't look quite the same / the Thames and the Mersey are of greatest commercial importance*.



Interrogatives

9 These are *who/whom/whose, what, which, (whether)*; adv. *when, where, why, how, (whence, whither)*.

Whether, formerly an interrogative pronoun used with reference to two possibilities: *Whether of them twain did the will of his father? / whether is easier, to say, Thy sins be forgiven thee; or to say, Arise, and walk?*—has been replaced by *which*, and is now only a conjunction.

Whence and *whither* are used archaically: *Whence all this confusion? / Whither did they go?* In standard English they have been replaced by *from where* and *where* respectively.

Most interrogatives also have a relative function, see 10 ff.

9.1 *Who* is used as a subject and as a predicative complement: *Who's got playing-cards? / I do not know who first circulated the idea // Who is he? / he was asking me a week ago who were the great authorities on alchemy.*

As direct object and as the complement of a preposition *whom* is used in strictly correct English: *Whom did you see? / Tell me whom you saw // Whom did you get it from? / Don't forget whom you are to make the boots for*; but in spoken English and informal written English *who* is used instead, except after a preposition and as the object in sentences of the type: *Who + trans. vb. + whom: Who did you appoint? / Do you know who I mean? / Who is this from? / I don't know who she is with now // To whom should I send this? / he didn't know to whom he should turn for help / Who has deterred whom?*

Whom is occasionally found instead of *who* where the interrogative pronoun can be mistaken for the object: *it is difficult to know whom exactly it is that the institute represents.*

Note that *whom* cannot act as the indirect object. Corresponding to a sentence such as *I sent him the book*, a question with this pronoun must necessarily take the form: *To whom did you send the book? or Who(m) did you send the book to?*

9.2 Like the possessive pronouns, *whose* is to be found both attributively attached to a noun, and with an implied noun: *Whose house is that? / I wonder whose house that is // Whose was that voice? / Tell me whose it was.*

9.3 *Who* and *whom* are used only substantively. *Who* as the subject is followed by a verb in the singular or the plural according to the situation: *Who is coming?* / *Who are coming?*—When *who* is the predicative complement the form of the verb is determined solely by the subject: *Who am I?* / *Who are you?* etc.

Who and *whom* are used for questions as to a person's identity: *Who was the lucky boy?* / *'you should see the gardens', she said aloud. But to whom?*—Questions with *who* are often used rhetorically instead of direct statements: *Who wants to live forever?* (= 'nobody wants . . .') / *Who could say that she had missed the prize of life?* / *in the small room you were surrounded by who knows what geniuses of Art and Letters.*

In questions concerning the description of persons, *what* is used: *you know who she is and what she is / it is not what a man has to do that degrades him, but what he is, in habit and association* / *Well, you know what she is. She sits there and smiles to herself.* But in questions concerning the classification of persons, where the conceptions of identification and description meet, both *what* and *who* can be used: *'What is he?'—'A lawyer' / 'What is he? A nobleman I suppose' / 'The Hoxton Freedom Group . . . What are they?'—'Communist Anarchists I think.'* // *'Who is he?'—'She tells me he's an architect.'* / *'Who is Hoggart?' Perhaps his own half-ironic answer is the best—a 'basic provincial Honest Joe'. / Who are the Whitbreads? Coal merchants. Respectable people.*

9.4 *What* is used both substantively and adjectively. Substantively it is the counterpart of the above-mentioned *who* in that it is used in questions as to non-persons: *What could I do?* / *they did not know what had happened* (for *what is he?* and the like see above). Adjectively *what* is used in questions concerning both persons and non-persons: *What child is this?* / . . . *spying on him to see with what woman he was* / *What books have you read?* / *he remembers what hat I wore.*

As the subject *what* is followed by a verb in the singular: *What's wrong?*—When *what* acts as predicative complement the form of the verb is determined by the subject: *What are your reasons?* / *What's your name?* / *I forget at this moment what was Mr Spencer's address.*

What can be used in questions concerning description: *the staff . . . , not knowing what their future was to be, were hoping for a nice Christmas*; other examples are to be found in 9.3 section three. This

association may be stressed by the addition of *like*: *What is he like?* / 'I wonder *what* he is like?'—'Very big and massive' / . . . keep alive in the minds of the fallen some idea of *what* life was like in the garden (i.e. of Eden).

Interrogative subordinate clauses with *what* used adjectivally with this value, as well as with a quantitative association: *knowledge is scanty of what published material exists* / *the shower of 'Collected Poems' we are going through at present underlines to what an extent this kind of volume has become a recognized milestone in a writer's life*—approach the relative construction in content; cf. *Mr W. underestimates the degree to which this complacency continued* / *I don't remember the games we played.*

What? (= 'What did you say?') is regarded as rather rude: *In News Review Princess Margaret shouted 'What?' to an official she didn't quite hear.*—*The parents I spoke to afterwards were unanimous. They all teach their children to say 'Pardon?'*—*What!* as an expression of astonishment is on the other hand normal: *What! Why didn't you tell me?*

9.5 *What*, like *who*, is often used in rhetorical questions instead of direct statements: *What does it matter?* (= 'it doesn't matter') / *What use is it?* / *Well, what of it?* / *What call had he to go there?*

Also in exclamations (= 'how much', 'how great', and the like): *What he has suffered!* / *What a gallant spirit he played the game in!* / *With what scorn he would have met Mr Shaw's taunt that the Englishman turns his games into hard work* / *with what pride would C. point her out* / *What a pity!* / *What fools we were!*—The indefinite article is present or absent in accordance with the customary usage of the article (see 12.4).

In the expressions *I know what* and *(I'll) tell you what*, deriving from '. . . what it is', or the like, the interrogative concept is lost, and *what* = 'something'. These expressions are colloquial: 'Tell you *what*, old boy.'

9.6 *Which* is used both substantivally and adjectivally of both persons and non-persons: *Cardus and Beecham each dictated alternate sentences . . . in so uniform a style that afterwards I could not remember which wrote which* / *Which English composers did he think had succeeded in finding a national style?* / *his impossible reminiscences . . .*

did in some way suggest, present, convey—I hardly know *which* word to use—experiences it was otherwise impossible to tell.

Which used substantively as the subject is followed by a verb in the singular or the plural according to the situation: *take these books to your brother and ask him which is/are his.*

9.7 *Which* is used interrogatively of one or more of a group implied or stated in the context. Used substantively in questions concerning persons, *which* approaches *who*: *Which is the stronger of the two? / Who is the stronger of the two?*; *which* is used when there is a clear concept of a choice within a certain group: (cricket) '*Which is Hammond?*' he asked. *The parson pointed out Hammond fielding in the slips / Which is the mistress, which the wife? / Their hair is long for a boy and short for a girl, so . . . I don't know which is which.*—The concept of a group within which a choice is to be made is particularly clear when the interrogative pronoun is followed by *of* + the denotation of the group: *Which of you will go with me?*—In rhetorical questions with this construction however only *who* is used: *Who of us would commit murder?*

9.8 Used substantively of non-persons and adjectivally of both persons and non-persons, *which* to some extent approaches *what*: *in a century of progress in the business, various key decisions claim our interest. Mr L. and Mr V. have gone some way to show the elements in these decisions—which of them followed naturally from the pressures of the time, which were influenced by luck, and which by great managerial skill / I will not reveal which Woodman / 'Do you remember those evenings?' she asked. 'Which evenings?'*

When there is a clear conception of the group from which the choice is made *which* is normally used: *it was in her nature, or in her sex, she did not know which / he had only two sermons, which he knew by heart, and which corresponded with his two alternate moods. By the time he had mounted the pulpit, we always knew which one we were going to have / Which do you prefer—the rocking-chair or this?* It is regarded as incorrect to use *what* in such cases: *What do you want? beer or milk? / it must be rather difficult in the Mustang district of the Himalaya to know what side of the frontier you are on.* If this conception is not quite clear however, *what* is the normal usage: *What colonies did England get at the Peace of Paris?*

But yet another factor plays a part in the use of these two interrogatives. As mentioned in **9.4**, *what* often has a qualitative (or

quantitative) association; *What years are leap years?* thus expects the answer: *years in which February has 29 days* or the like. *Which* is used in such cases when the question concerns identification, even though there may be no clear conception of the group from which the choice is made. *Which years are leap years?* will thus be the form taken by the question when an answer such as: *1952, 1956, 1960*—is expected. In other words: questions with *what* presuppose possibilities of a varied kind, while questions with *which* presuppose them to be conceived of as alike.—Examples of *which* in such cases: *new varieties and variations* (i.e. of primroses) *have been produced from the parent stock, making it difficult, and in some cases impossible, to decide which the originals were* / *the Encyclopaedia didn't say which the proper poisons were* / *how wonderful it was to be taught by him! To be told by him which trees were which* / *if the meanings of words are not fixed . . ., is there any way of predicting in which direction they are most likely to change?* / *The best that has been thought and said. Very nice. But the best in which way? Alas, only in form. The content is generally deplorable* / *we have not even been told which are the urgent recommendations on which the Ministry of Transport is already negotiating with local authorities.*

The close approximation to each other of the two interrogatives—as well as the differences described above—can best be seen in such cases as the following: *thus between them they decided what crops should be sown, what fertilizers should be used in different places, which breed of pigs should be imported, and which line of turkeys* / *the next step will be to discuss the foreign words which have found a way into our language from those early days, and see not only which words they have displaced, where the object or idea was already known, but also what effect they have had on the native element* / *more and more advertising is done by manufacturers, which means that the shopper cannot hope to find, in any single advertisement, the material on which to make comparisons between brands (or, incidentally, to know what choice is available at which shops)* / *another thing that he loved, he said in no less heartfelt a way, was its* (i.e. the House of Commons) *quick changes of mood . . . How lovable it is, of course, depends on which mood changes to what.*

9.9 Interrogatives can be intensified by means of certain adverbial additions: *what, where, etc. + on earth, in the world, etc.*: *How on earth did you manage to do that?* / *Who in the world is that fellow?* / *Why the devil didn't you tell me?*

Among these adverbial intensive elements, *ever* should especially be noted: *Whoever* recalls his childhood primarily for a reader's pleasure? / 'they want some of our good money'—'*Whatever* for?' / *Wherever* did he go? / *Whyever* didn't you say so? / *However* did she make him marry her?—These intensive interrogatives, which are also written as two words, are colloquial; for the use of *whoever*, *whatever*, etc. in formal English see 10.9.1 ff.

Relatives

10 With the exception of *whether* and *how*, the words mentioned in **9** as interrogatives also act as relatives; i.e. they represent a substantial element in a main clause, and are part of a subordinate clause.

Examples: *In these days, when so much has to be written about that macrocosm the World Church, we need not apologise for turning to an ultimate molecule of Christian history, a little girl going to church for the first time / one can see the young Crossman resolving to succeed on the battlefield where Fisher had failed / There are a number of reasons why both birds and wild animals are to be found on . . . airfields / the eels have been transferred . . . to a newer and more convenient well whence household water is got / Here in the north-east, whither I have made my sentimental journey, the land and sea yield the old harvests of grain and herring.*—For *who*, *which*, *what*, see below.

This usage of *why* is found only referring to the noun *reason*; *whence* and *whither* are used only archaically.

That and *as* also belong to the list of relatives (see below).

Compounds of *where* and a preposition: *whereby*, *wherefore*, *whereto*, etc., are now confined to formal English, and have been replaced in the easier style by *by which*, *for which*, etc.: *is there a test whereby words of native origin can be known from others? / a burglar has stolen our breakfast and the stove on which to cook it.*

10.1.1 Relatives are usually placed at the beginning of the relative clause, but in literary English they may be found later in the sentence: 1) after a present participle form in the type: . . . , *saying which he left the room*; 2) after an infinitive: *the African Queen issued forth upon the Lake to gain which they had run such dangers and undergone such toil*; 3) as the object of a preposition (or a prepositional phrase) and after *than*: *the turning point was in March since when there has been a steady improvement / close to the asphalt runway on which we landed, were a pair of oyster catchers / this year May 24 was the bicentenary of John Wesley's conversion, of which the story is told on another page / His place is among the last Victorian sages, like George Eliot and Matthew Arnold, to whom he owed and acknowledged much / he consulted his watch at 10-minute intervals, in spite of*

which the service finished late // a railway fanatic, than whom few bores can be more crashing; 4) after a word-group ending with a preposition (very often of with a partitive value): an inevitable series of moods, each of which has evolved its own system of harmony and each of which has to be read as a fragment of autobiography / the new industrial areas produced coal, textiles, and metal manufactures, a large fraction of which were exported / Halder's diary, many of the quotations from which are published for the first time / he mentioned the three chief sources of modification between the original and the finished play—the producer, the actors, and the audience itself—all of whom might also have limitations / party and Government officials, more than 90 per cent of whom are said to be faithful and conscientious / two supremely great dramatic poets, the features of whose poetry were exactly the same, account for the strangeness of this identity of view, of value, of style / Oliver early became . . . a passionate admirer . . . of the compositions of Carolan, some of the last notes of whose harp he heard; 5) after all and both used adjectivally: . . .—All which is abundantly true (beginning a fresh paragraph).

The co-ordinating conjunctions can of course precede the relative in the last of two or more relative clauses: *the different nations must restore their own international equilibrium by co-operation with other countries which are at a similar stage of development, or which have well-defined interests in common with them.* The insertion of such a conjunction when the relative clause is co-ordinate with other adjectival elements is deprecated in pedantic rules (e.g. Partridge: Usage and Abusage, sub 'and which'), but is by no means uncommon: *it was the Dutch who most strongly opposed the part in the Treaty of Rome dealing with this problem and in which a gradual harmonising of the various systems is recommended / two other groups of words, originally scientific, but which have spread into the common vocabulary, both show developments of modern science / the diary, our authority tells us, is a daily record of matters affecting the writer personally or which come under his personal observation.*

10.1.2 The associations of relative pronouns as to person and number correspond to the substantival element to which they refer: *I, who am . . . / you, who are . . .*, etc. Examples: *any other woman . . . would have done something—all except myself . . . who am not a woman, but a peevish, ill-tempered, dried-up old maid / they come to me who neither work nor am anxious.*—For special cases as to number the reader is referred to the section on concord, particularly

1.4.8 and 1.4.13.—A few examples may be given here: *Here is none of the humour, naturalness and charm that irradiates Hill's famous group of the Scottish divine proselytising a congerie of petticoated fishwives / the guard which is to fire the salute of guns appropriate to such an encounter are still standing by / it has been the privilege of our country to play her part—a part worthy of a people who have learned the lesson to practise the example of ordered Freedom / not all librarians can undertake with confidence the establishment and maintenance of a music collection . . . say James Clarke, who publish at 45s. Music Librarianship, by E. T. Bryant.*

10.1.3 There are two types of relative clause: 1) restrictive ('defining') and 2) parenthetic ('descriptive', 'amplifying'): 1) *this is the boy who brought us the letter*, 2) *this is John, who brought us the letter*. Restrictive relative clauses may be introduced by any of the relatives mentioned in **10**; there is no pause between the relative and the element it represents, and the relative clause is therefore not isolated by commas (if the relative clause is long however there may be a comma after it): *it seems that in countries where trigger-happy sportsmen still shoot little birds all the year round, you often find birds near an airport / the Conservative women who packed the Royal Albert Hall the other day to hear the Prime Minister were given a nasty turn at the start / of all the beautiful things which are to be seen in shop windows perhaps the most beautiful are those luxurious baths in white enamel / the solitude that is the natural counterpart of great open spaces is somehow lost in the picture / he receives £2,000 a year, which is the same salary as is paid to some Ministers outside the Cabinet.*

Parenthetic relative clauses can only be introduced by *wh*-relatives; there is a pause before and after the clause, normally indicated by a comma, but occasionally by heavier punctuation such as a semicolon, full stop, or even a fresh paragraph. The relative clause's independence in content is so great that it could often be replaced by a co-ordinate sentence (e.g. *and there* instead of *where* in the first example): *Headquarters referred me to our local police station, where a rather sleepy voice promised to send a constable at once / Hutchinson, who now have a number of 'Taurus Poets' on their list, recently gave a small party for them / then we took the paved road to Zeugma, famous for its pontoon bridge, a hundred and twenty miles away; from which it is another two hundred miles to the frontier / 'Haven't you a car?' Bee said, looking at the empty sweep in front of the door.*

'I left it parked at the end of your drive there. I've never got used to sweeping up to strange houses as if I owned them.'

With which startling exhibition of modesty the little man bowed, put on his hat, and walked away.

10.2.1 *Who, whom.* The use of these forms as relatives does not quite correspond to their use as interrogatives (9.1), *whom* as a relative not having yielded place to *who* to the same extent. *Who* is therefore normally found as the subject, *whom* as the direct object and as the complement of a preposition: *he had gone over to the pub to meet a friend who was staying there* / *Henry II, who succeeded Stephen, had no light task to restore order again* // *Miss Hill writes cordially to one whom she never ceased to admire* / *Dido, the cook, whom he knew and loved well* // *Jane was a woman with whom age did not count* / *Suzanne, to whom he whispered his project proudly, announced an intention of being present* // *he is one person whom I would never confide in* / . . . *Mary, whom he was in love with*. In spoken English (rarely in the written language) *who* may be met with in place of *whom*: *the man who I saw there* / *my father, who you will see soon*. The usual substitutes in colloquial written English for relative clauses with *whom* are relative clauses with *that* (see 10.4) or contact clauses (see 10.6.1) in the case of restrictive relative clauses, but co-ordinate sentences where the relative clauses would be parenthetic: '*I have been thinking so often lately of Bill and Nora,*' *Nancy said. 'This would have been such a happy time for them'* (= '. . . B. and N., for whom this would . . .').

Whom may be found instead of *who* in cases where the relative can be wrongly regarded as the object: *a man whom he thought was a spy* / *I feel that your correspondent, whom I imagine is a woman, would prove no exception*. This is not an accepted usage. *Whom* instead of *who*, on the other hand, is normal after *than* in the markedly literary type of sentence: *a man than whom no one was greater*.

10.2.2 *Who* and *whom* are used only substantively. They refer to names of persons (for approximation to *which* when a denotation can have both personal and non-personal aspects, see 10.3.1), and are used both in restrictive and in parenthetic clauses; examples are to be found above.

Who(m) could formerly be used independently, without reference to a substantival antecedent. The relative clause then has a substantival function. Thus Shakespeare: *I dare do all that may become a*

man; Who dares do more is none (Macbeth I vii 46) / *I will set this foot of mine as far as who goes farthest* (Jul. Caesar I iii 118). A few expressions are still to be found in the definitely literary style: *who delays, pays* / *Whom the gods love die young* / *Sir Howard grunts emphatically, as who should say 'I thought so' / he is a first rate clergyman, able to say what he likes to whom he likes.*—The usage now is *he who*, *those who*, etc. or *whoever*.

10.2.3 *Whose* acts as the genitive of *who*: 'My dear Mr Ruskin', wrote Octavia Hill . . . to the man *whose* financial help had made possible the start of her housing ventures / . . . Fowler, quotations from *whose* works form a kind of running commentary / *he was of those young men whose* delicate mouths seem to have been fashioned for the nice conduct of a cigarette.

It is also used extensively with a possessive value referring to denotations for non-persons: *a modern development whose* origin and history call for a brief review / *we walked round the bedrooms, whose* occupants pretended to be asleep. *Whose* here acts as the genitive of *which*, as an alternative to *of which*: . . . *controls whose* purpose / *the purpose of which* / *of which* the purpose is . . . This use of *whose* was until recently rejected by pedants, and is often accepted only in cases where *of which* would result in a particularly clumsy construction, e.g.: *he stood looking through some trees the shadows of whose* trunks were spilled out along the ground; but even where *of which* would not be clumsy it is often replaced in written English by *whose*: *wild thyme, a spreading stain on the turf whose* soft purple colour and warm aromatic smell seem to strike the senses as one / *peaches . . . the glorious fruit whose* warm perfume delights the air / *tulips . . . colours for whose* sake the burgesses of seventeenth-century Haarlem were prepared to part with boarded guilders / *the blend of liberal and national idealism . . . is now reaching the shores of Africa and Asia in tidal waves, whose* speed and intensity are making nonsense of slower, more considered policies.

10.3.1 *Which* is used both substantively and adjectivally. Used substantively it refers to non-personal denotations. In former times it could refer to names of persons, as in: *Our Father, which* art in heaven. It is used in both restrictive and parenthetical clauses; for approximation to *that*-clauses and contact clauses in the case of the former type, see **10.4** and **10.6.1**.

Occasionally a writer vacillates between *who* and *which*, when the relative refers to a substantival element which can be regarded as the denotation of either a person or a non-person: *We do not know what that One is with whom (or with which) he is now at one / Leautaud had a cat of his own whom (or which) both he and Blanche doted on.*

When a personal denotation refers not to an individual, but to a type or function, *which* is the relative used: *Shaw is commonly regarded more as a Funny Man than as the revolutionary which, at bottom, he is / this is much more convincing to the scientist (which I am not) than to the economist / it is Freud the analyst which we most enjoy / all his conversation was a dialogue with himself or that little doppelgänger which stood invisibly to one side of the people he was supposed to be talking to / the country village and the urban housing estate both need the very best men which can be found for them / the more sophisticated steelworkers—of which Port Talbot has many delightful samples—suggest that the company's decision . . . is an overture to the Common Market battle.*

In the case of *baby* and *child* both views are possible: *in course of time Christiane bore three other children, one of which died in infancy and the other two in childbirth; but of older children: . . . the children, who carried their special clothes in bundles.*—For the same reason *which* is used in the following case, which is rare: *Livia had just been delivered of twin boys; of which, by the way, Sejanus seems to have been the father.*

Varying usages in the case of nouns with a collective value (cf. 6.2.6): *Asiatic tribes and American tribes, which resemble each other / the Gothic nation, a minor Germanic tribe who moved from the Baltic to the Black Sea // through the Celtic period the number of people which the country could support was mounting quite fast / overseas students . . . the number whom the Council met and assisted showed an increase / . . . Penguin Books, who endeavour to make their jackets informative.*

Both relatives are used referring to nouns denoting a state (cf. 6.2.4 conclusion): *Italy, which entered the war in May, 1915, attacked Austria from the south / France, whom it concerns most closely, did, however, take certain precautions with regard to Hainan // the United States, which had the making of an even more dangerous rival, did not enter world politics till the War of 1914–18 / the United States, with whom we are anxious to maintain the closest and most friendly contact // the first members of the League were the Allies and*

neutral countries which signed the Treaty / (NATO) its organisation will be pushed ahead rapidly with those countries who are prepared to co-operate // any third power which attempted to put in a claim to Egypt or Morocco / the two Western Powers who are urging . . . the necessity for the utmost concessions // the savage little States which had arisen on the fringe of the Turkish Empire proved to be excellent instruments of imperialist policy / only States who were signatory to the terms of surrender could take part in drafting treaties of peace // Vice-President Nixon is welcome to Britain. We are happy to receive him not merely because he represents an ally to which we are bound by warm friendship and respect / Britain also gave enormous sums to her allies who were struggling against Napoleon.

With names of animals (cf. 6.2.2): *like the cat, which during a long hour closes in on a sparrow, P. was ready to pounce / I went to attend on an injured Siamese cat who had had a misunderstanding with . . . // there are two animals, one of which is also the intended victim / an attitude towards those other animals whom we have selected as participants in our sport.*

With names of ships (cf. 6.2.3): *the wreck of the White Ship, which a drunken steersman had run on the Casquets / in the trial races sailed to date 'Yankee' has won four matches over 'Rainbow', who has not won any races // London heard the enemy destroying the fine ships which Charles II had laid up / a battle has started between the foreign tramps and the freshwater ships, who have for so long carried the cargo from the head of the Lakes to Buffalo.*

10.3.2 *Which* could formerly be used independently, without reference to any substantival antecedent. *What* is now used in this way, and only in cases where a clause with independent *which* is co-ordinate with a preceding clause with *what*, can *which* have this function: *in Russian usage* *odin 'one' is an adjective, two to four take what was originally a dual ending but which is now construed as a genitive. / she held up her hand to stop what she thought was clapping at the back, but which was two or three women trying to quiet their babies.*

10.3.3 In formal English *which* can be used adjectivally: *they were on holiday from Lancashire, to which county he belonged / it stormed all day, during which time the ship broke up.* This construction can serve to ensure the correct value of the relative, where *which* used substantivally might refer to larger or smaller parts of the preceding clause: *I said nothing, which fact made him angry.*

Adjectival *which* referring to a personal denotation is now rare and mannered: *Mr Johnson, which gentleman was present . . .*

10.3.4 Lastly, *which* may refer to the content of a preceding sentence, or part of it: *you can stay and dance at your own coming-of-age. Which you can't at your wedding / the woman told her that her husband would be a stranger from the south of Caernarvonshire; which, in fact, came to pass.*—For similarity between *which* and *what* in this usage see **10.7.2**.

10.4 *That* is unaccented, like the other relatives, and is pronounced /ðæt/. It is used substantively, and can be subject, object, predicative complement, and the complement of a preposition (which then ends the relative clause); it is used almost solely in restrictive clauses, and can refer to denotations both of persons and of non-persons; it can refer only to nouns and pronouns, not to the content of (part of) a sentence; and it cannot be used independently (i.e. without an antecedent), though formerly it could, as can be seen in the proverb *handsome is that handsome does*.

Examples: *it is not a thing that would disturb me / all the old recipes that we have now lost / this sympathy that you talked about / it is the uncommon man that gets us on / I don't think anything that any critic ever says is worthy of consideration.*

It approximates to *who(m)* and *which*; for contact clauses see **10.6.1 ff.**

10.5.1 *Who(m)* and *which* have more force than *that*; *wh*-pronouns are therefore used more widely in formal English than in colloquial speech in cases where both possibilities are present.

That *that* is less independent as regards content is shown, inter alia, by the fact that it generally comes immediately after the noun it refers to: *one need not be very old to remember the 'screw of tea' that people used to buy / Garbutt Place . . . was the first property that Octavia Hill managed.* If the distance is greater *wh*-pronouns are normally used: *we begin to take note of whims, fancies, peculiarities on the part of the essayist which light up the prim, impeccable countenance of the moralist / marks were discovered near the bedroom window which the constable insisted had been made by a dog. That is not rare in such sentences however: parts were indicated to me that showed quality.*

In a series of co-ordinate relative clauses the first may be introduced by *that*, while those succeeding normally have a *wh*-pronoun: *it is fierce local patriotism of this kind that creates difficulties for the capital, straddled between the two zones, and which led to the outcry on both sides / obscurity suddenly became fun in a way it never had been before, and which none of Mr P.'s reasons seems to throw any light on; that* may however be encountered, though less frequently, in the later relative clauses: *It is not melodrama that brings two men in plain clothes to your door, half an hour after you have talked to a Cabinet Minister, to ask what he said; or that prompts a friend (who is bold enough to lunch with you in a restaurant) to choose the table in the far corner / the lawyer, like the theologian, is faced with a number of texts that he regards as authoritative and that are supposed to settle any question that can conceivably arise.*

10.5.2 Phonetic considerations play a part in the use of relatives; thus demonstrative *that* is followed by *which*: *I use the word not in its present depreciatory sense, but in that which was held in the nineteenth century.* This also applies when the words are not next to each other: *the House of Lords falls short of that perfection which abstract political theory would require.*—Interrogative *who* is followed by *that*: *Who that had been there for but a few hours could ever forget?*; but not necessarily if the relative is separated from *who*: *Who was it now who had done that?*

10.5.3 In parenthetical relative clauses only *who(m)* is used in reference to a personal denotation; but *who(m)* is commonest in restrictive relative clauses also, and referring to personal pronouns it is almost the only usage.—For split sentences see, however, **10.6.2(2).**

Examples: *my dear mother, whom I had forgotten // Pat would be happier with somebody who knew him / the determination is shared by virtually every Anglican bishop whom I know / many that heard him on Sunday at Lincoln's Inn went to St Lawrence Jewry on the following Tuesday in the hope of hearing the same sermon over again / he has little talent for pictorial description . . . the ladies that he loves, are, visually speaking, almost interchangeable // it was we who conquered the heathen Slavs / it was she who suffered / they have missed the better half of life who do not know Claribel (they who is now literary usage instead of those who: those who really stole the show were the old men).*

10.5.4 Since *who* is the usual relative in restrictive relative clauses referring to personal denotations, and *that* (as well as *which*, see below) the usual relative in clauses referring to non-personal denotations, these two pronouns can indicate gender in cases where the substantival element to which they refer can represent either class: *two millions who feel themselves to be French, though most of them are German-speaking / all those millions that India has spent in the last few years // he was friendly to all who spoke with him / a few feathers is all that is likely to remain // one of those who were most anxious to get a substantial nuclear weapons force / the bits I've always liked best are those that refer to John Hilton.*

The distinction is, however, not quite clear-cut: *the Wood Gods are rather horrible to those who molest them.—Horrible perhaps to those that believe in them / all that had resented his superciliousness . . . were triumphant because his pride had had a fall.*

10.5.5 Only in certain types of restrictive relative clause is *that* in common use referring to nouns denoting persons:

(1) In split sentences (**6.3.6**) *that* is used as well as *who* if the expression has a general signification: *it is the uncommon man that gets us on / it was a lucky boy, I knew, who lived among guns and hawvers*; but if the statement has a specific signification only *who* is used: *it was Sir John Harding who struck the first blow / the editors of 'Fortuna' remain smugly convinced that it is God whom they serve.*

(2) With nouns qualified by a superlative, or a word with a similar content (*any, only*), *that* or *who* is used: *the greatest writer that England has produced / I owe more undiluted happiness to him than to any man that ever lived / Adrian the Fourth is the only Englishman that has become Pope // teachers are the last persons on earth who can believe that all men are born equal / in many hotels the Lounge is kept permanently locked, which naturally affords complete solitude to any guest who is in there / he is the only man in England who knows about these things.*

(3) As predicative complement *that* can refer to a personal denotation expressing a quality. The alternative here is *which*, *as*, or the omission of a relative (see **10.3.1**, third section, **10.8.3**, **10.6.1(3)**): *he was at heart still the peasant that his forebears had been / the mirror of his lovely lyrics, of his great odes, shows you the man that he was in reality / the Puritans, jovial gentlemen that they were, saw evidence of*

paganism in plum pudding and mistletoe.—*That* may also refer to an adjective: *There was an inward beauty, an inward glory which, blind that she was, she had then but dimly apprehended*; but here *as* is now normally used.

(4) Only *that* is used in the phrases *that is to be*, *that was*, to express change of name: *Nancy Peck was still serenely beautiful*; and *people still said: 'Nancy Ledingham that was, you know.'*

10.5.6 When the antecedent is a combination of a personal and a non-personal denotation, *that* is a handy relative: *the men and the things that he had seen*. *Wh*-pronouns corresponding to the final element can however also be used: *anything or anyone who was not familiar to him / the things, persons and events with which we have to deal in our day-to-day living*.

10.5.7 *Which* is the usual relative referring to non-personal denotations in parenthetical (descriptive) clauses, but *that* does occur: *the ancient villages scattered along the Wiltshire Avon that borders Salisbury Plain, are what the military have made them / Quaker's Bonnet is aptly named for its dainty mauve flowers that have beautified corners of cottage gardens for generations / wisps of white hair peeped shamelessly below the shapeless black hat that was precariously secured to the back of her head / the ash trees retain their long and melancholy-looking seeds, that are sometimes called ash-keys*.

In restrictive clauses the ordinary relative is *that*, but *which* is very widely used in literary English: *it is just that fantastic, tortured, acrobatic style that now makes him difficultly readable / I began to form that impression of his strength and quality which since has never left me // even in those countries that have a tradition of democratic government, this freedom and even the desire for this freedom seem to be on the wane / Members were originally returned to Parliament from those boroughs which sent members to the Shire Courts // young men talked about poets and poetry as if they were something that was real and vital / death control is something which can be provided for a whole people by a few technicians // no scientist could . . . read all that he should about work related to his own / this was all which Oxford had to offer // the old traditional Turkish wrestling bears something of the same relationship to it (i.e. modern wrestling) that tennis bears to lawn tennis / the *s*-suffix varies in pronunciation according to the same conditions which determine the form of the Possessive (cf. under *as*) // it was the hearty*

joyousness that 'W.G.' shed around him *that* made him so dear to us youngsters / it is the comparative peace from interference *which* makes these places popular // in 1915 the Sunday Times . . . was enabled to become, not merely the great property *that* it now is, but the foundation of the vast interests of the Berry brothers / if we stand firm, Mr Krushchev's threats will be seen as the empty words *which* they really are.

10.5.8 *That* as a relative can furthermore have an adverbial function referring to expressions of time or manner: *I knew it the first time that I saw him / this was exactly the way that kindly old gentlemen were supposed to talk.*

In the more literary style a preposition + *which* is used here instead: *it fascinated me to see the way in which he dealt the cards.*

Expressions of time + *that* may approximate expressions of time + *when*: *I can hardly recall a time when a big man with a black beard was not my king / is not this the time when every effort should be made to bring about a pacification?*—They differ in that expressions of time + *that* can together act as a conjunction, while expressions of time referred to by *when* belong only to the main clause.—Cf.

10.6.1(4).

10.6.1 Contact clauses are relative clauses joined to the main clause without a relative: *he is the greatest novelist we've got.* These relative clauses are very closely attached to the substantival elements they qualify, so that the latter may as a result belong rather to the subordinate clause than to the main clause. There is no break in sound or content before these relative clauses. They may refer both to personal and to non-personal denotations, and are only restrictive clauses. They are in common use in spoken and natural written English.—They are found used particularly as follows:

(1) Where a relative would have been the direct object: *Sophia bore an illegitimate son at the turn of the century, by an unknown father even Mrs Iremonger's masterly detection has failed to establish / the fox I saw on the perimeter of Frankfurt Airport obviously knew where . . . / I feel as though I were beginning to be able to use that power I feel I've got inside me / that is the very same tune I heard yesterday / the first I heard about the Confirmation to be held in Bartica was . . . / we have sold all we can / there must have been double yellow primroses in those far off days, and they may have been the ones we know / a lightheaded air similar to that people may feel after being*

narrowly missed by a lorry on a dark night // . . . insignificant looking saplings you would not expect to put forth the glorious fruit . . .

(2) Where the relative would have been governed by a preposition. This is placed at the end of the relative clause: *we know the man you came in with / he wanted the name of the man we referred his nonsense to / the aircraft I was in was travelling at hundreds of miles an hour.*

(3) Where the relative would have been a predicative complement: *the author still talks like the man he was when he wrote the plays / she was twice the man her son was // if he is the murderer I think him, we have done no more than is just.*

(4) Where the relative would have had an adverbial function: *any suggestions as to how Conway could possibly have arrived at Chung-Kiang in the state he was / I certainly do admire the way you manage to see both sides of the question / the first time we went away he was somewhere between a kitten and a cat.* Here the antecedent may be so closely attached to the contact clause that it acts as a conjunction: *we'll be married the very moment we find a house / I'll tell him the minute he gets there.*

10.6.2 Contact clauses are infrequent in expressions where the relative would have formed the subject. Only the following types are found:

(1) Relative clauses having *there* as the formal subject: *Lohmann was the most naturally gifted all-round cricketer there has ever been / Louise needed all the rugs there were to keep her warm / when I think of the great quantity of books there already are in this world, it seems to me a sign of hopeless irresponsibility to add to their number.*

(2) The main clause is introduced by *it is (was)* or *there is (was)*; this usage belongs to colloquial speech: *it's the coppers, not spooks, make me sleep uneasy / it's the dry weather does it / he looked . . . cancelled . . . that was the word that flew across her mind. Perhaps it was his scars suggested it / there's no one enjoys good food more than he does / I am here, right deep in America, where there's a wild spirit wants me / it was me that put her up to it all along. It was me made her think it was the best thing to do // here was this Wedderburn had picked up a prominent man for a father . . . // Ryder's is the last name would have occurred to me.*

10.6.3 Main clauses that include a negation can have a relative clause attached without a relative, but introduced by *but*, which in these cases corresponds in content to *that . . . not*. This usage is literary. The main clause often begins with *there is (was)*: *there wasn't a man in the barony but had a hundred songs in his head / . . . until the German armies broke into Belgium, not one out of twenty in the British nation but would have voted against Continental war*.

10.6.4 In nearly all the examples cited the contact clause has a restrictive value. Contact clauses with descriptive value are rare: *he was brought an apple and a pail of spring water, but refused both these refreshments he used to enjoy*.

10.7.1 *What* as a relative is distinct from *what* as an interrogative: '*What* (inter.) *has happened to him?*'—'*Why, what* (rel.) *happened was that he fell out of a tree and broke his neck!*' / *I wonder what* (inter.) *Adam was when first made / he was what* (rel.) *Adam was when first made*. The interrogative *what* may be stressed, and the interrogative sentence may be turned, more or less naturally, into a split sentence (> *What is it that has happened to him? / I wonder what it was (that) Adam was*); relative *what* cannot be stressed, and the sentence cannot be split.

10.7.2 *What* can be either substantival or adjectival: *why should the government shirk what could prove a popular change? / the squirrels are feasting on what walnuts the jays have left / the concept of 'lighting-up time' is grievously outdated in the streets of London (let alone on what few high-speed roads we have)*.

What referring to a noun is found only in dialect: . . . *the bloke what signs our books / honest to god fox—beast what smells / one can't expect foreigners to 'ave the same ideas what we 'ave*.

What can introduce a parenthetic clause, and refer to the content of a succeeding part of a sentence: *I have been full of gladness this day, and what is more, as I came up the hill from Waltham I was inspired to verse / my mother told me. And she did it, what's more, on her knees, in the course of an extemporary prayer*. This use of *what* approximates to the use of *which* referring to the content of a preceding sentence or part of a sentence (10.3.4). When the main clause is introduced by a conjunction, and the parenthetic relative clause immediately follows this, *which* is used as the relative: *change of meaning may also be effected, by means of figurative language, or,*

which is a similar process, the use of a concrete term for an abstract conception / as a result of this severance of possessions, and, *which* followed naturally, of interests, the king and nobles were compelled to look upon England as their primary concern / the question of whether or not the language would have been as efficient, convenient, and (*which* perhaps counts for all too little these days) as beautiful in sound and form, has already been discussed.—Only after and can *what* (still) be used, as shown in the previous set of examples.

10.7.3 *What* acts as an independent relative in standard English (i.e. it does not refer to any substantival element in the context). It can be subject, object, prepositional complement, and predicative complement: *Lord Lambton represents what might be called the dissident element / it is true what Rilke said, that fame is the sum of misunderstanding which gathers about a new name / the actual sum is no greater than what Mr Eisenhower asked for / Laputa is to Lilliput what Alice in Wonderland is to surrealism.*

When there is no number influence from the context *what* as the subject is followed by the singular of the verb: *what is true of Korean sculpture is even more true of Korean painting*; but the preceding context or a succeeding predicative complement in the plural can give *what* plural associations: *several hundred million tulips, daffodils, etc. were exported . . . What were not exported were forced in green-houses / non-attachment to self and to what are called 'the things of this world' has always been associated . . . with attachment to an ultimate reality greater than the self / Colonel Aref went about the country saying what are always understood to be hair-raising things. There is a certain amount of vacillation here: we have been invited to abandon what seems to us to be the most valuable parts of our Constitution / it gives me something of the same kind of pleasure to call attention to what seem to me to be some of its merits.* (See also 1.4.10.)

10.7.4 *What* with a singular association may be said to correspond to *that which*: *That which had made Helmholtz so uncomfortably aware of being himself and all alone was too much ability. What the two men shared was the knowledge that they were individuals.* This use of *that which* is formal: *that which* affects our tradition most intimately is the grammatical system evolved by the Greeks / the Society of the Sacred Mission has grown and expanded until it is today *that* for *which* the whole Anglican Communion has cause to thank God. (See also 7.6.1.)

10.7.5 After *than*, *what* as the subject is omitted in educated English: *to establish closer political consultation at a higher level than prevails in the North Atlantic Council / he won more immediate support in the conference than might have been expected / a more rational and consistent administration of the law than now exists.* Colloquial speech here uses *what*: *he accomplished more than what was expected of him*; and in uneducated speech even *what* with an adverbial function may be found after *than*: *she can run better than what I can.*

10.7.6 Relative clauses introduced by *what* can form the subject, object, prepositional or predicative complement of the main clause: *what had occurred was just one part of a general pattern of repression / there is no reason why the LCC should not do for the theatre what it has done for music / I hope you are well, and that much news of what is hopeful and good reaches you / that was what I had grown used to.*

10.7.7 *What with . . . and (what with)* can act as a conjunction, and connotes concurrent causes: *what with this and what with the Archbishop of Canterbury's visit to the Pope the Church was keeping him busy / what with one thing and another I never seemed to have time.*

10.8.1 As can have a relative function.

In dialect *as* can refer to a substantival element without any comparative association: *I can't be the only man as walks along this street and wants a fag / it's the motors as have done us (i.e. publicans) / Uncle George . . . him as was in China / there's not many as'll say that.*—Standard English would here use *who*, *which* or *that*.

10.8.2 *As* is commonly used as a relative with a comparative association, referring to a substantival element with *same*, *such*, *as*, or *so* attached: *it was the same Jane as I had known before, perfectly simple . . . / she says just the same things as she's said for the last thirty-five years / such taste for poetry as they retain in later life is only a sentimental memory of the pleasures of youth / There are as good fish in the sea as ever came out of it / normally a Parliament which opens after a general election fixes the political frame for a year or two—particularly when the party in power has so large a majority as the Conservatives obtained last year.*

The usual relative expressions are also found after *same*, namely *wh*-relatives (*the same person who / the same time when / the same*

place where, etc.), *that*, and contact clauses; for example: *Norman-French words passed into English speech for the most part with approximately the same sounds which they already had / much at the same time that the civil wars were being fought in England . . . the Reformation had produced in Germany also very violent quarrels / that is the very same tune I heard yesterday*. These expressions are used particularly where identity is expressed, while sentences with *as* express similarity.

After *such*, *wh*-relatives and *that* may be found instead of *as*, but these expressions are regarded as incorrect: *the British Government has emphasised that such a scheme to which the British Government would give assistance must apply to persons of all political creeds / . . . enjoy these facilities until such time that he terminates his agreement*.

10.8.3 *As* can act as the predicative complement of a relative clause, referring to a substantival element expressing a quality in a person: *indefatigable amorist as he was, he fell violently in love with her / honest man as he was, it went against the grain with him to step into the shoes of one who . . . / great character as my father was, he had long since lost touch with his own boyhood*.—Here *that* is the more common (10.5.5(3)); but referring to an adjective or adverb, *as* is the more common and *that* less frequent: *little as Victoria appreciated her Prime Minister's attitude towards her, she found that it had its uses / unbelievable as it was, they actually welcomed me*. When attached to adjectives, expressions with *as* have a concessive value, and approximate expressions with *though*: *Chekhov's medical practice, desultory though it was, brought him into contact with all manner of persons / being out of doors all day long gave us appetites not to be satisfied by the scenery, magnificent though it was*.

10.8.4 Finally, *as* can introduce a parenthetical clause, and refer to the content of the main clause; cf. the corresponding use of *what* and *which* (10.7.2). The clause introduced by *as* may be found before, within, or after the main clause: *as everyone knows, it is harder to write interestingly about a good man than about a bad one / one day I read, as was my habit, the page which one of the best of our English weeklies devotes to the consideration of current literature / he was altogether a very strange man, as will appear when I narrate as best I can something about him*.

10.9.1 The commonest function of the compounds with *-ever* mentioned in 9.9 as emphatic interrogatives is to act as independent

relatives. The use of *whatever*, *whichever* and *whoever* corresponds to the use of *what*, *which* and *who* as interrogatives, not as relatives, i.e. *whatever* and *whichever* are both substantival and adjectival, *whichever* and adjectival *whatever* are used both of persons and of non-persons; and *whichever* connotes a choice between a certain number of possibilities: *whatever* guests you invite . . . / *whereas* historical people are quietly obedient and accept *whatever* speech one chooses to give them, imaginary characters, by insisting on *whatever* builds them up as personalities, tend to throw the plot out of balance / as for the women . . . he could have *whichever* of them he liked / it was the kind (i.e. of religious mania) that makes you think you are saved and everybody else is damned or the kind that makes you think you are damned and everybody else is saved. *Whichever* it was, he was very good about it / these . . . pilgrims . . . were dateless . . . praying to *whichever* God was temporarily in charge / a Minister of State is responsible to the whole of Parliament, from *whichever* House he speaks.

10.9.2 *Whoever* is generally unchanged as the object: *ask whoever you meet*; *whomever* is literary. The genitive is not frequent: *whose-ever it is, I mean to have it*; if the genitive is followed by its complement, colloquial speech uses *whoever's* (*book it is, . . .*); literary English would here use *whosever*.

10.9.3 Clauses with these relatives may form the subject, object, etc. of the main clause: *whatever he says is of no importance* / *the international competition produces whatever disturbances there may be* / *he was angry with whoever opposed him*.

Such clauses may also be parenthetical, and are then concessive; clauses with *whatever* are often condensed: *I never see ghosts, whoever may* / *the drawback to compulsory arbitration, from whichever side it is looked upon, is that it tends to promote extreme attitudes* / *whatever the title of the present book may turn out to be, its chief claim must be that it is a book of human experiences* // *whatever the deeper causes, the immediate reason for fresh outbreaks in Notting Hill is infection* / . . . combating those who, for *whatever* reason, choose to ignore the facts.

10.9.4 *Whatever* can be added after a substantival element in negative expressions; it stresses the negation, and is the equivalent of *at all*: *he had no doubt whatever* / *I cannot see anyone whatever*.

10.9.5 Forms with *-soever* instead of *-ever* belong to rhetorical language: *he welcomed whosoever came / you have no evidence whatsoever / my father's example has guided me throughout life more strongly than that of any other person whatsoever.*

Whosoever has the inflected forms *whomsoever* and *whosoever*:
(they) render faithful service to *whomsoever* holds the talisman.

Indefinite Pronouns

11 These are pronouns denoting: 1. (together with nouns having countable associations) a number of a given category: (*no*), *one*, *some*, *several*, *many*, . . . (*all*), without indicating which member or members of the category; or 2. (together with nouns having non-countable associations) a part of what is denoted by the noun: (*no*), *some*, *much*, . . . (*all*), without indicating what section.

Many words which are usually adjectives can lose their quality content and become indefinite pronouns: *are you certain?* / *that brings us to pronouns, in certain of which a fairly full inflection still exists* // *the subjects are very various: Galileo, Sir Walter Raleigh, Montesquieu* / *the popularity of various garden flowers gains and wanes* // *there was just sufficient water for drinking* / *he lacked the trust of sufficient of his colleagues when the time came for the choice to be made.*

The converse—that a pronoun acquires a quality content and becomes a true adjective—can be seen in the colloquial use of *some*, meaning roughly 'great': *the Americans called Monty's plan a 'pencil thrust'. Forty divisions on a hundred-mile front a pencil? Some pencil.*

Only those indefinite pronouns whose use presents special problems are treated in the following.

No, none, nobody, no one, nothing

11.1.1 *No* is used as an attributive adjective: *he is no fool* / *he has no money* / *there is no difficulty* / *there can be no two opinions, they were as good as ever.*

The negative concept often belongs to the whole sentence, and not especially to the succeeding noun: *the fortifications were manned by no troops worth the name* / *you need have no fear*. In such cases the same content could also be expressed by sentences with *not*.—This is not the case when the negation belongs only to the succeeding noun (as in the first example); here the combination *no* + noun expresses the opposite of the noun: *the governess was no fool*: narrow, jealous, provincial, she might be; but she was an acute and vigorous woman, while negation, and not contrast, is expressed when *not* is used: *he was*

not a reactionary; he was simply an opportunist / *the Bridge Party was not a success*—at least it was not what Mrs M. and Miss Q. were accustomed to consider a successful party.

No can have an adverbial function as the negation of a comparative; it expresses an emphatic denial (= 'not in the least', 'in no way'): *if the progress of the Labour Party is no faster than that, none of the present leaders can hope to live to see the promised land of office and power / no fewer than 142,000 houses were built last year / a strike would be a disastrous novelty in the Civil Service; but continued discontent is no less unfortunate / his bed-side manner might be a memory for a generation, but no longer / . . . toiling to death in forests, mines and quarries, many for no more than indulging in freedom of thought // to secure possession of an unwelcome piece of evidence . . . is no different from suborning a witness.*—If the concept of emotional reaction found in these phrases is to be excluded, and an objective comparison expressed, *not* is used: *instructions should reach THE SPECTATOR Office, not later than Tuesday of each week / if the men of the Somme were probably unrivalled by any earlier armies, the materials and preparations of the battle were not less extraordinary / the very heavy casualties were estimated at the time to have amounted to not less than 240 dead and 400 injured / it was found that not more than £60,000 had been subscribed—a sum insufficient to defray the expense.*

In general *no* cannot form the negation of a verb, the only exception being the phrase *or no*: *whether we like it or no, we are involved in the power structures*; this usage is formal, the natural expression being *or not*: *it is easier to justify the active participation of pacifists in politics, whether or not they choose to be neutralists as well.*

11.1.2 *None* can be independently substantival, used of persons; it has plural associations, and thus acts as the plural of *nobody* and *no one*: *Saint Swithin always went on foot and in the dark that none might see him / when he reached his home village, none knew him and all was changed / none are so deaf as those that will not hear.*—The corresponding use of *none* with singular associations in place of *no one* or *nobody* is now rare: *the rowing boats for hire rocked idly at the water's edge and there was none to take them.*

None can be substantival and represent a substantival element, either in the preceding context or following an *of* attached to *none*. *None* used thus can represent uncountables (*none* naturally being singular here), and countables denoting persons as well as non-

persons (*none* is here singular or plural according to the speaker's intention).—Examples: *he asked for food, but the priest said there was none* / *there was none of the fawning and cringing one encountered so often* // *of all British statesmen active between the wars, none merits honourable commemoration more than Lord Cecil of Chelwood* / *so far none of the new men has been able to manage Neville Cardus's remarkable combination of letters, sport, and music* / *of all the girls he called, none were at home* / *none of us were sure of the facts* // *Sir Winston called for secret sessions, but there was none* / *none of the new silver and copper coins now being minted has been issued* / *'Where are the apples?'*—*'There are none'* / *none of his hopes have been realized.*

None could formerly act as an attributive adjective instead of *no* before a vowel (cf. *thy/thine*, 6.8.1 second paragraph); it can still be found in literary English before *other*: *the man who had lost his memory was now firmly convinced that he was none other than the missing clerk, heir to a fortune* // *this nerve that winces belongs to me and to no other.*

None has an adverbial function before *the* + comparative and before *so* and *too* + adj. or adv.: *there are, none the less, some Malayan substantive monosyllables* / *the Labour party's summing up of its policy is a mild document, and none the worse for that* / *it's none so pleasant* / *the picture of S. with none too sure a command of the English language, picking the political thoughts of American taxi-drivers is an intriguing one* / *it's none too soon.*

11.1.3 *Nobody* and *no one* are used as independent substantival pronouns of persons; they have singular associations and as subject take a singular verb; the lack of a common gender personal pronoun may however cause them to be represented by *they* (see 6.2.1). There is a tendency to use compounds with *one* where there is a concept of a limited group, and with *-body* where there is no concept of limitation: *nobody has time for everything* / *nobody's stopping you, are they?* / *since no one had an answer to this, silence fell over the luncheon table.*—The close approximation to *none* (11.1.2, first paragraph) can be seen in cases such as: *I had the road entirely to myself for mile after mile, meeting no one, overtaken by none.*

The *'no one* discussed here must be distinguished from *no one*, which is used substantivally, representing a substantival element in the context, or adjectivally; in the latter usage it has a numeral value (cf. *no two*), and can be used both of persons and of non-persons: *no one of the other dramatists approaches Shakespeare in the number*

and vividness of their images / *no one* party could build up an artificial lead on another during an election campaign dominated by the television screen.

In addition, *nobody* can be a noun, meaning 'unimportant person': *she married a nobody* / *the platform was full of nobodies*.

11.1.4 *Nothing* is an independent substantival pronoun with a neuter value: *Nothing ever happens*.—Followed by *of* + a noun with non-countable associations: *the regatta lost nothing of its flamboyance* / *there is no atmosphere in the book, nothing of the light that . . .*, this pronoun (in the sense 'nothing in the nature of') can approximate to *none of*, which has a partitive association: *here is none of the humour, naturalness and charm that irradiates Hill's famous group* / *' . . . the recent history of the art in which a man is working exercises a more powerful influence upon him than do the social, religious, and political events of the time in which he lives,' . . . none of this has anything either democratic or anti-democratic about it*.

Formerly *nothing* was used with an adverbial function; this survives in certain phrases: *nothing daunted* / *the other man, nothing loth, raised the mug to his lips* / *nothing much was done about it* / *he looked nothing the less sad*.—Colloquially the adverbial use is frequent in the phrase: *nothing like so* (or *as*) = 'not nearly so': *it is nothing like so fast as it used to be*.

In addition, *nothing* can be a substantive proper: *these little daily thunderstorms were a mere nothing* / *the girl went about the room doing vague nothings*.

Some/any

11.2.1 As a whole, *some* and its compounds are used in the same way as the negative pronouns discussed above. The most important difference is that corresponding to *no* and *none* there is only the one form *some*.

Some can be independently substantival, used of persons, and is then plural in content: *before the Church of South India had started some had said: 'It's impossible to have bishops.'* / *some go so far as to assert the treaty is invalid*.

Substantivally, representing a substantival element in the context, including the complement of a following *of*, it is singular in the case of non-countable concepts, and plural in the case of countables:

'Coffee?'—'*I could do with some*' / voices drifted across the water, *some* swearing and others singing / will you take *some of my money* / *some of the boys* were late.

As an attributive adjective *some* is attached not only to uncountables and the plural of countables, denoting respectively undefined amount and undefined number, but also to countables in the singular; this last usage connotes an unspecified member of a class; the undefined concept is often stressed by the addition of *or other*: *give me some bread* / *I want some stamps* / *some preachers* find delivery easy // *the breeze brought with it the tinkle of a steel band from some village up in the mountains* / *some mischievous boy* has broken the window / *I hope to go there some day or other* // they moved off *somewhere or other* to fight a battle somewhere else.

Before numerals *some* is used in the sense 'approximately': *I was living in another area some 60 miles away.*

11.2.2 *Somebody* and *someone* are as to function and connotation similar to *nobody* and *no one*: *it was as though somebody had suddenly revealed the identity of Junius or the Man in the Iron Mask* / '*Somebody* knocked at my door.'—'*Did they?*' / it meant that *someone in the village was a thief*.—Cf. *some 'one of them must have seen it with a numeral value.*

Somebody can be a noun, signifying 'a person of importance': *he thinks he's (a) somebody.*

11.2.3 *Something* is an independent substantival pronoun: *they could do something for the immediate relief of the destitute*. Followed by *of* + a substantival element it can approach *some*: *his face still suggests something of the earnest young student* / *he made enough money to buy something of an estate* / *the Parliamentary system has lost something of its vogue and efficiency* / *the clothes had lost some of their value*.—*Some of* has a partitive association.

Something can have an adverbial function in phrases expressing comparison: *he is something like his father* / *this happened something more than a month ago* / *a poet with this tremendous equipment can hardly help being something too much for the generation in which he was born*. Here *somewhat* is also used (see below).

Otherwise *something* as an adverb is found only in dialect: *the Major used to suffer from rheumatism something terrible.*

Further, *something* can be a substantive proper: *there is a suggestion*

of cast iron about Miss Russell, a *something* that is above the ills of the flesh.

11.2.4 *Somewhat* could formerly be used substantivally instead of present-day *something*. This survives only before *of*: *oddly enough, this earlier Samuel Johnson had somewhat of the lexicographer's character.*—It is now usually used adverbially: *each aspect may have been somewhat oversimplified in the exposition* / *'He repels me in somewhat the same way as does a scoutmaster . . .'*

11.2.5 *Any* and its compounds have almost the same functions as the corresponding forms of *some*.

Any can be used as an independent substantival pronoun; it is then plural and is used of persons: *Any who desire a compact introduction to Belloc and the viewpoint of militant Catholicism will find the subject provocatively offered / thinking it too dark for any to see the smoke, I ripped up part of the wainscot.*

Substantival *any*, representing a substantival element in the context, including the complement of a succeeding *of* (used of countable phenomena it is singular or plural, according to the speaker's intention): *'Have you got any objection to giving me your material?'*—*'My dear boy, I haven't got any'* / *the babies being born today will enjoy a better life than any their fathers have known / his novels have as good a chance of surviving as any that have been written in the last hundred years / if any of the grass had been charred, it was returfed / it was not suggested that any of the accused was implicated in the stabbing of Police-Constable Summers / it is hard to believe that any of the forty British volunteers in M. Tsombe's army were moved by idealism / his last book had done much better than any of the others.*

Any as an attributive adjective: *he would take into account any advice from the Council of Ministers / she revised personally any interview he gave / plans for dealing with any Communist attempts to block Western routes to the city were being discussed / was any playwright the worse for varying favourite themes? / there aren't any children in our neighbourhood.*

Any can act adverbially before a comparative with or without the definite article, and before *too*: *Sir Patrick Hastings: His Life and Cases relies very largely on the dramas of the court-room for its interest. Nor is it any the worse for that / he couldn't bear to speak of it, any more than I could / does he feel any better? // it is not any different from what we expected // I am not any too sure.*

11.2.6 *Anybody* and *anyone* are functionally and semantically similar to *somebody* and *someone*: if *anybody* speaks to me about it I have my answer / *anybody* can see for themselves / for *anyone* who wishes to have an idea of what the eighteenth century was really like Casanova is the indispensable author / *anyone* with their eyes, ears, and mind working properly must have felt that they were meeting one of the great spirits of our time / things such as these appeal to aught there may be of painter or poet in *any one* of us.—Cf. he did not know yet the name of *any* 'one of the boys / a speech, plans of a new weapon, a proposal to invade Mars, or just a shopping list . . . just as well *any* 'one of these things as any other / what it fails to recognise is the inability of *any* 'one union to speak on behalf of all the men engaged in aircraft maintenance.

Anybody and *anyone* can also be used to signify 'a person of importance': he'll meet the most interesting set of men and women . . . Every one, in a word, who's *any one* / he'll never be *anybody*; he's too lazy and ignorant.

11.2.7 *Anything* is an independent and substantival pronoun: no one outside the United States sees *anything* sacrosanct in the Monroe Doctrine.—Followed by *of* + noun it approximates *any*: have you seen *anything* of John lately / the Canadian bishops wanted a world-wide synod. But Archbishop Longley was not having *any* of that / he had sent her into market as beef and netted £75. 'I hope I don't get *any* of her for my Sunday joint,' he said;—*any of* has a partitive association.

Anything can have an adverbial function before *like*: this sum is not *anything* like adequate.

11.2.8 *Some* and *any* and their compounds differ in content especially in that *some* presupposes an existing reality, while *any* has an association of the potential. *Some* thus connotes 'particular, but unspecified specimen, amount or number': in the morning *someone* noticed that the door had been forced / the clothes had lost *something* in value / *some* of these contributions are included in this book; *any* connotes 'possible specimen, amount or number': there was no room for *anyone* else / I have not found *anything* / Have you *any* witnesses?

In sentences expressing questions, denials or conditions *any* is, naturally enough, particularly frequent; but *some* is by no means rare in such sentences, which then imply that the phenomenon in question exists. Compare: Did you ever hear *anything* more dreadful? /

did they know of *anyone* who could climb? / is there *something* familiar about this process by which inherited beliefs lose their lustre, and history itself turns sour? / Is it *someone* who was on the boat? / Can I do *something* for you? / Would you like *something* to eat before you leave? // I have not found *anything* / he did the work without *any* difficulty / even when he wasn't doing *something* tiresome, like winding up the bucket, had it really been satisfactory? / a period of activity akin to that of the War years, but without *some* of the restraint of those years / it was not possible for him to bring *some* fish back to pay for the cost of the fuel he used / this Coronation business is not giving much of a chance to *some* of our former favourites in the news columns // if she did say *anything* more, H. unquestionably would put her into the gutter / if you can produce *something* to show that the local authority is dealing with the matter, that might help you / . . . hating H. 'For being so disgustingly pi', he would have said, if *somebody* had asked him to explain his hatred.

11.2.9 In sentences other than the above, *any* is stressed, and connotes 'every conceivable possibility'; it here approximates *every*. If the range of possibilities is limited, the difference is great: *any day next week* means 'Sunday or Monday or . . .'; *every day next week* means 'Sunday and Monday and . . .'.—Example: *the one who was chosen to be hung every morning used to leave his share of the bread to any one he liked*. But the larger and vaguer the number of possibilities, the less difference between the two forms of expression, and *any* may here become simply a stronger synonym for *every*: *her story will fascinate any historian of her day / I am not asked to autograph any Bibles. I am asked to autograph everything else . . . I sign automatically: I sign anything, anywhere / anyone at all familiar with Canadian politics knows that*.

Every, everybody, etc., each, all

11.3.1 *Every* acts as an attributive adjective, and can be attached to every noun capable of taking the indefinite article: *every man should have a profession / on every side was the glare and crashing of bombardment / I should like them to be together every holidays*.

Note that it can follow a possessive pronoun and the genitive: *she had a splitting headache and her every bone ached / she was following Flegg's every step with admiring eyes*.

Every can precede a cardinal number + a noun in the plural: *every three miles* (cf. *another three miles*) and then connotes repetition: *dust every two or three days to keep down the turnip flea-beetle* / *General Elections must take place at least every five years* / *Party organizers are allowed to have only one car for every 2,500 electors*.—The same is expressed less frequently by *every* + ordinal numbers, etc.: *at every twelfth metre from zero to 2040 it* (i.e. the extract) *was automatically injected* / *every second boy was told off for special duty*.—*Other* can still be used here instead of *second*, with the same literal value: *write on every other line* / *she bumped the shopping bag with every other labouring step*; but in general *every other* is not used to denote exact facts, but to express marked frequency: *walks through country where every other village houses a poet*. Thus also *every few miles*, *every now and then*, etc.—Note: *a fine prose writer who every so often deviates into crankiness*; *every so often* is colloquial for ‘occasionally’ and the like, and must be distinguished from *ever so often*, meaning ‘frequently’.

11.3.2 *Everybody* and *everyone* are similar in function and connotation to the other compounds with *-body* and *-one*: *everybody was spying on, and informing against, everyone else* / *tropical evergreen rain forest is not everybody's cup of tea* / *Everyone who cares for Christian unity ought to wish Dr Fisher good luck* / *a surprising incident opened everyone's eyes to the confusion that reigned in the Palace*. Cf. *Nothing is more maddening than to hear several men refusing to join in a simple chorus after dinner, when you know perfectly well that every one of them has been singing in a high tenor in his bath before dinner* / *... extracts from five Christmas sermons and of every one of them it is true to say that he took a line no one else would ever have thought of* / *in every one of these cases the result would have been the victory of the Prime Minister of the day*.

11.3.3 *Everything* is an independent substantival pronoun: *she would starve herself to death in her forgetfulness of everything*. Note the special value signifying ‘the chief thing’: *a name is not everything*.

11.3.4 *Every* and its compounds are singular, but since it has the value ‘as well one specimen as the others of a definite or indefinite group (of three or more)’, it is found in many constructions with a plural association; not only as a solution of the gender difficulty mentioned earlier, where the pedantic *he*, *his*, etc., and the clumsy *he*

or *she*, etc. are replaced by the *they*, *their*, etc. of fluent speech, but also in many other cases.—Examples: (mixed company) *everyone* talked at the top of his voice / *Everyone* is self-interested, aren't they? / *everyone* gave themselves up to rejoicing // *everybody* nudged each other / he looked up between every mouthful.

11.3.5 Since *every* means 'as well one as the others' of a group, it approximates *all* when the limits of the group are reasonably clear: after outlining the lure of forgery the author . . . ranges *all countries* in *every century* for his examples / this work of reference supplies *all the official facts* about *every country* in the world / after warmly thanking *everybody* concerned, we took our cat home / how much better it will be for *all concerned* when it^a (i.e. the dismantling of Hyde Park Corner) is *all over*. The distinction in such cases is that *every*, etc., with its association of 'every single one without exception', is a stronger expression than *all*, etc., which can often be said to correspond to 'generally speaking all'.

In the case of *every* + noun, a clear concept of a group may be lacking, and *every* then loses its customary value and becomes an intensifying expression: *I am expecting him to arrive every minute* (i.e. 'very soon'); this is particularly common in combination with a noun with an abstract content; here *every* signifies 'the greatest possible', or the like: *the court exercised every leniency* / *there is every reason for doing this* / *we have every confidence in him*.

11.3.6 *Each* can have a substantival function when it represents a substantival sentence element, including the complement of a succeeding *of*: *his father and mother stood in the shade, each drinking a small lemonade* / *a mile or so out from the capital two brakes with a pair of horses to each were waiting* / *the 'genes' which an individual inherits equally from each of his parents* // *give them sixpence each* / *the cigars cost a shilling each*.

Each is used as an attributive adjective before nouns in the singular with countable associations: *each man has a share of the catch* / *the clothes lost something in value each time they were pawned* // *a change-over at 2 p.m. permits machinery to be at work for nearly two thirds of each 24 hours*.

11.3.7 *Each*, like *every*, is singular, but as with the latter the value of 'each specimen of a group' may lead to constructions with plural

associations: *Each* writer has one thing in common—affection for the aborigines,—but *their* outlooks in parts are very different / the isolated families of the Amazon Valley use *each* *their* own language / playing Lady Isobel means a complicated change of clothing *between each* act.

11.3.8 *Each* and *every* may approach each other in content; both connote 'as well one as the other(s) of a group' (only *each* can however be used of two: *two suburban London cinemas are being converted into drug stores. In each case there will be a vast façade of plate glass*).—Examples: *Each* tribe and *every* clan of *each* tribe has its own hereditary pastures / the sentence does not lose its feeling of unity so long as *each* and *every* one of its elements falls in place. They differ in that *every* indicates that the statement applies to the whole of the group concerned (i.e. 'every single one'), while *each* directs the attention towards the individual member ('every one taken separately'); this concept can be stressed: in Semitic *each* several verb is conjugated according to temporal aspects rather than time, and instead of substantival *each*, *each one* may be used for emphasis: *physically and mentally, each one of us is unique*.

The concept attached to *each* will naturally mostly be found in the case of small numbers; but the number is not decisive; the important factor is that *each* implies greater interest in the individual component than does *every*: *she had come every Friday as long as any of the counter clerks could remember . . . Once that same clerk had tried to help Mrs Gregg . . . and had been sharply rebuked . . . Thereafter each Friday, the old lady had treated the clerk to a nod of recognition . . . / at ten o'clock each week-day two worldfamous trains leave London on new record-breaking non-stop runs to Scotland / they all turned up . . . on Mrs Hilary's birthday. It was her special wish that all those of her children who could should do this each year / the lower valley is thick with green cresses . . . The wind has not quite turned the birds from their preoccupation with pairing, but it has given them an added interest in food and warmth. Each barn shelters a flock of hungry birds . . .*

For *each other* see **11.6.5**.

11.4.1 Only in stock expressions is *all* now independently substantival denoting common gender plural: *his tendency to be influenced by all and sundry*; in this function it is now replaced by *everybody* and *everyone*: *under favourable conditions practically everybody can*

be converted to practically anything / in a month everyone was talking about Jane.

All can be independently substantival in the neuter singular, and signifies 'the surroundings', 'the conditions', or the like; only in a number of stock expressions is it unlimited as to content: *above all*, *after all*; *one's all* (i.e. 'everything one has'); *and all* (equivalent to 'etc. '); *that is all* (i.e. 'the whole'), etc.—Examples: *a party of birds flew low over the field and all was silent again / even in Eden, in the days before man's fall and woman's motherhood, all was not purer than the fields and moors under the burden of the carpet formed of the myriad scintillating flakes / I look in at baby and her 'sitter' and see that all is well // after all it might have been worse / he lost his all / all crowded into a lorry, cheetabs and all / his secretary's pencil scurried across the page . . . 'That seems to be all' he said and looked at his watch / it is a matter of all or nothing / all is over—otherwise all is replaced in this function by everything: he thinks he knows everything.*

All is on the other hand often used substantivally in the common gender plural and in the neuter singular (or plural) when it represents a substantival element in the context,* or is limited by an attached element: *he tried soldiers, clergymen, barristers . . . imagining herself the wife of each in turn. But all, it seemed, were not only unsuitable but impossible / they all went to Appeville / all of us want to go // he had survived tropic suns, English winters, and, most remarkably of all the hand of time / the west end of Piccadilly, the eastern extreme of Knightsbridge, the northern arm of the Carriage Drive—all look as though some crazy authority has decided to undertake opencast mining on the verges of Hyde Park / it is all over / he ate all of it before we noticed him // all who have studied this question have come to the same conclusion / people walk up the hills and down the hills and all they see is flowers / the Government are doing all within reason.*—In this usage expressions with *all* approximate expressions with *everybody*, *everyone*, *everything*; the latter are the stronger (cf. 11.3.5): *everybody at the palace was alive to the occasion / Mr B. was received with cheers by a crowd of about 200, and every one was surprised to find that he seemed to be comparatively fresh / I would give everything I have for this not to happen.*

* The difference between this and the above-mentioned function appears from such cases as: *Peace or War, prosperity or financial breakdown, the 28' decides all*, viz. 'in the matters concerned'; while *everything* in such a connection would have an independent value and be unlimited as to content.

11.4.2 As an adjective *all* may be attached to nouns in the indefinite form if these are

(1) proper names of a geographical type: *a better kept set of books would not be found in all Nigeria* / referring to the tours by Mr Gaitskell, Mr Phillips said that he should cover *all Britain*. Here *all* approaches *the whole of*; the former alludes to 'content' (e.g. inhabitants), the latter to 'extent': *all London* wanted to see Colonel Lindbergh / after a fortnight we thought we had seen *the whole of London*.

(2) appellatives in the singular with non-countable associations: *all flesh is mortal* / centralization of *all power in the hands of the proletariat*. In the case of nouns with an abstract content it is often merely intensive: *with all speed* / *in all haste* / *with all respect*; cf. *every*, **11.3.5** conclusion.

(3) appellatives with countable associations, when these are in the plural: *the time when all good little boys should be in bed* / *all eyes turned to the rector* / *it's frightfully difficult to be fair to all parties*.—For approximation to *every* see **11.3.5**.

Appellatives with countable associations cannot take *all* when in the indefinite form singular; note however: *all summer*, *all winter*, *all yesterday*, and other denotations of periods of time: *the sight shattered him so that he could think of nothing else all day* / *I'd ask nothing better than to have you here all night*. In the phrases *all (the) afternoon*, *all (the) evening*, *all (the) morning* the expressions without the article are normal in American usage and becoming accepted in British English.—For approximation to expressions with *whole* see below.

11.4.3 *All* can be used adjectivally before appellatives of every kind determined by a preceding definite article, demonstrative pronoun, possessive pronoun or genitive: *the staircase smelt of all the cabbage and all the beef and all the mutton ever consumed by lodgers between these walls* / *all the might and power of Japan have been unable to crush China* // *all the press will*about the story of my practical joke* / *I was awake all that night* // *you'd better set all the burglar alarms* / *Mr O. had seen and done all these things* / *having shaken all his friends by the hand, he set out alone along the road to prison* / *he spent all his childhood's Sunday afternoons studying those maps*.

This adjectival *all* may be replaced by *all of*: *all of the work* / *all of the people* / *he spent all of his time with other young gentlemen quite*

as *conceited as himself*; this form of expression is found more commonly in American than in British English, where it is colloquial.

Of the phrases with *all* discussed in this section the expressions with the noun in the plural approximate expressions with *every* (see 11.3.5). The expressions with the noun in the singular approximate expressions with *whole*: *he was working himself into a state of hatred of the whole female race* / *Mr P. is among the most effective defenders of collective defence in the whole British Labour movement*. As mentioned earlier, the expressions with *all* allude to 'content', while those with *whole* allude to 'extent': *all the world knows that* / *these elections have already engaged the attention of the whole world*. In many contexts there is not much to choose between the two points of view: *that garden has haunted all his life* / *his whole life was devoted to the cause* // *all the town was in an uproar* / *the whole town knows it*.

11.4.4 *All* may be adverbial: *stretched all across the horizon was the sea* / *a disease which has all but exterminated this primrose in England* / *giving a good lecture is not nearly as worthy as writing a good article, and the man who can do the former is all the more unlikely to be able to do the latter* / *he was all burnt up with thirst*.

In a written context *all* can often be understood in more than one way: *Were the dates all wrong?* / *they were all dressed up*.

A particular interest is attached to the type *he was all smiles*, where *all* is best regarded as an adverb qualifying the concept of quality contained in *smiles* (cf. *wholly cotton*, *purely period*, etc.). In this usage *all* is not placed before a determinative (as the adjectival *all* would be): *From a traffic point of view the all bell expected has not been let loose*.

Both, either, neither

11.5.1 These are used of two. *Both* corresponds to *all* in some of the latter's most important uses: *Harrington and Dunning were brought together . . . both hesitated* / *they both went* / *he was twenty-nine and she twenty-five, both of them painters* / *everyone who owns both knows the fondness of a dog for a motor-car* / *first, a war in the Formosa Straits can be limited; and, secondly, Russia will not intervene. If either assessment proves incorrect, we shall be near a world war. If both prove incorrect, we shall have one* // *both boys volunteered* / *Members on both sides of the House of Commons showed signs last week*

of pining for a debate on foreign affairs // both the brothers came / both his sisters are married / three girls are going to sing, one of 20, one of 13 and one of 14—both these pretending to be 15 / both (of) these books.

Both, which means 'the one **and** the other', may be found used slightly inaccurately instead of *either* (i.e. 'the one **or** the other'): *patients of both sexes are received for treatment.*

11.5.2 *Either* is used of two, corresponding to the most important uses of *any* about three or more: *if either of us wants his liberty the other will place no obstacles in the way of getting it / you may borrow either of my two cameras // Harrington and Dunning were brought together . . . The paper was narrowly examined . . . the characters on it were more like Runes than anything else, but not decipherable by either man / I do not know whether these contributions will be called essays or short stories, but strictly they do not come within either description.*

Either denotes 'the one **or** the other of two': *the bat is held in either hand*; formerly it could also be used to signify 'as well the one as the other of two', which is now normally expressed by *each*; the present distinction is seen in the following example: *subject and predicate may be combined in a single word, as in Latin dico; each may be expressed independently, as in the English equivalent, I say; each or either may be so qualified as to lead to complex propositions of many sorts.*—But the old value of *either* may still be encountered in formal English: *we do not prick our ears when a man who owns the largest motor-car factory in the world comes into our presence, and we yawn in the face of a railway director. Yet either of these may be far more entertaining company than any author; this applies particularly to certain combinations: at either end of the table / the other carried, in either hand, what looked at a distance like three or four pieces of thick rope / smaller boys kneeling on either side of the candidate / the trees on either bank.* But natural English uses *each* in this sense, in the above-mentioned combinations also: *I step lightly raising each knee / a bright spot of colour on each cheek / K. and M. were sitting one at each end while J. was rowing / they were seated on each side of the driver / a broad winding river . . . on each side of this stretched hills densely covered with virgin forest.*

Either is singular, but followed by *of* + a substantival element in the plural it may be found with a plural verb: *I don't think either of them are at home.*

11.5.3 *Neither* is used of two, corresponding to the most important uses of *none* and *no*: *if you (viz. a couple) want your liberty neither should put any hindrance in the way of the other / both of them painters and neither of them famed / fancy Miss Mitford turning garrulous and ill-tempered! She was neither in her last book // neither man had arrived / a question that neither Front Bench would wish to pursue.*

Neither is singular: *neither statement is true*; but *neither of* + a substantival element in the plural not infrequently has a verb in the plural attached: *two reasons, neither of which are noticed by Plato.*

(An)other

11.6.1 *(An)other* used as a noun has the usual *s*-suffix in the plural and the genitive: *I have not heard of any such ships for some years, and I fear there may be no others / he loved to set his brain against another's / one side does not recognize the other's ministry as valid . . . priests of the Roman Church refuse to pray or preach at others' services.*

Before partitive *of*, *other* without suffix was formerly used with a plural content: *other of his books*; it can still be found: *several other of the more exhilarated guests*, but *others* is the common usage: *I have not adopted the suggestion, as I have adopted others of his.*—*Other*, on the other hand, is still the only form used before *than*: *there are no signs that the United States intends to use other than economic counter-measures.*

11.6.2 As an adjective, *(an)other* has the usual adjectival functions: *he became another man / she never gets another penny out of me // the other man got out / there were other kite-flyers on the common / every other fact sank into insignificance beside that one supreme quality / the Middle Ages was in this and other things the age of volunteers // other powers than mine / the spread of H-bombs to Powers other than the United States and the USSR // Mr Blackbridge seldom writes a sentence that is other than characteristic / I do not wish him other than he is.*

11.6.3 *Other* can be adverbial before *than*: *the editor never put pressure on me to write other than as I wished.*—Apart from this the

usual adverbial form is *otherwise*: *this must be done quite otherwise*. Strangely enough, the latter can be found co-ordinate both with an adjective and with a noun: *difficulties, legal and otherwise / report on the success or otherwise of the new organization*, a usage not universally accepted (see Gowers: *Plain Words* p. 169).

11.6.4 As mentioned in 11.3.1, *other* in the combination *every other* may approximate *second* in content. Used of two, a *second* has an association of succession absent in *another*: . . . *an addition, whether a second son or another daughter, will be as welcome in her* (i.e. the Queen) *family as in any other // have another try / the King has passed the flying test all pilots must take alone in an aeroplane which, unskilfully handled, may allow them no chance of a second attempt // this young man may turn out another Keats. A second Gloriana, did he call her? Very well then, she would show that she deserved the compliment.*

Other denotes the, or a, remaining part of two (groups):

(1) The two (groups) are conceived as alike: *the man put out his other hand / the sooner they were shot the stronger the effect on the others / the child was another's / he has just been to Russia to perform his own and other American music / some of them lean their slender branches on the stone walls; others grow from niches / three envelopes stood conspicuously propped against the wall. Two . . . were stamped, the other was unstamped.*)* In the case of *we* and *you* this concept is rarely expressed by *others*: *it shows the goodness of human nature that we pay the artist wages at all. Tactically we others have him in a cleft stick*; the normal usage is: *the police always like to be interfering with the rest of us*.

(2) The two (groups) are conceived as dissimilar; with this value it may be combined with intensive adverbs and approach *different* so closely that like the latter it is followed by *from* (this is not approved): *change into other clothes / Sir Antony was always himself. He could be no other / brief glimpse of another world / the Pope who was elected in 1939 because his candidature was offensive to nobody came to stand for something far other than just inoffensiveness / such*

*) After interrogatives and compounds with *any*, *some* and *every* the corresponding concept is expressed by *else*: *where else did you go? / What else shall I say? / did you see anyone else? / he took somebody else's bat.*

days . . . are indeed *quite other from* all the common days of our lives.

Other signifying 'additional': *Menin Rd where I together with many others was gassed / above the bed hung two caricatures of himself by Max Beerbohm and another by Rouveyre / the township relapsed into its customary sleepy peace for another year / 11 citizens killed . . . another 27 people badly injured.*

11.6.5 Certain phrases with *other* are of special interest: (*the*) *one* . . . *the other* is discussed in **7.4.3**.

One . . . *another* is used of more than two: *five young birds in a very small nest . . . one on top of another.*

Each . . . *the other*: *each discovered the other's love / each knew the others' thoughts . . . all three of them.*

One another and *each other* act as reciprocal pronouns. Some (e.g. Partridge, in *Usage and Abusage* p. 100) maintain that *each other* should be used of two, and *one another* of more; this is not stock usage however: *the driver and the fishmonger rolled against each other . . . women giggled and men called out to each other / theology can make a synthesis of other branches of knowledge and give them all meaning to each other / the western team and Mr Gromyko have still only a tentative idea of what is in each other's mind // Betty and Herbert didn't speak to one another on the Sunday / Jutes, Angles, and Saxons could probably understand one another / the owls were out and about, calling to one another / we trudged on, turning our eyes ever and again to glance laughingly, questioningly, or perplexedly at one another's.*

It is considered bad English to make the reciprocal pronoun the subject: *there is something to be said for the parties . . . knowing exactly where each other stands.*—The above-mentioned *each* . . . *the other* or *one* . . . *the other* are generally used instead.

In addition to reciprocal expressions there are in the case of many verbs intransitive expressions implying reciprocity: *fight, kiss, meet*, etc.

One

11.7.1 *One* can be an indefinite personal pronoun, signifying 'I and others'; cf. *we* **6.1.7**, *you* **6.1.8**, *they* **6.4**, and passive expressions

1.5.9.2. It is unstressed, has the genitive form *one's*, and forms a compound with *-self* (see 6.6.1). Examples: *if one looks at the Chancellor's announcement one cannot fail to be struck by what it does not mention / when someone's killed who's been in love with one, it makes it all so terribly poignant / one has to take care of one's family / it is nice, just now and then, to let oneself be a complete reactionary.*

This use of *one* is commonest in educated speech; colloquial English often uses *a man* or (still more informally) *a fellow*, or the like: *you don't give a man a chance / what else can a fellow do?*

One may also be used with (assumed) modesty instead of *I*: *the peaches are, if one may be forgiven, the apple of his eye / the man had never read one's books, never even heard of one's existence.*

11.7.2 Used independently, *one* may furthermore mean 'person', or rather 'being'; this usage has the genitive *one's* and plural *ones*, and is represented by 3rd-person personal pronouns: *somewhere a midwife toad uttered its crystal monosyllable, so strangely beautiful a sound from one so ugly / suppose . . . that as a child sitting . . . on some one's knee, he had seen a waggon crush some one's foot? / the house-mother helps to dress the little ones / the lines out of the 'Ancient Mariner' . . . about one who, having once looked round, walks on, and turns no more his head, because he knows . . . / the great ones of the earth are apt to look upon the services rendered them as their right.*

One with this value is one of the means of substantivizing adjectives in the singular of the common gender; some phrases are stock expressions: *the Holy One* = God, *the Evil One* = the Devil.—Examples: *the temptations of the Evil One are many / like St Paul he seemed to be battling with the wicked one / the tough one wins / at the next return of the parent with food the young one was dead / he is a rum one.* This form of expression approximates corresponding combinations of adj. + noun, or, in certain styles, adjectives used as nouns: *the blond man and the frizzy-haired dark man agreed / (of a nestling) the stimulus of the young's cry and open mouth / if a grown-up could behave so childishly, you were liable too to find yourself in their world / in the adjoining garden . . . a religious was working with his disciples.*—See 3.2.2 and 3.2.4.

For *one* with this value in the compounds *anyone*, *everyone*, *someone*, *no one*, see these in the preceding sections.

For the corresponding possibilities of expression in common gender plural: *pennies dated 1864 have been withdrawn by the*

knowing ones / the administrators concerned with aid to the world's homeless ones have clearly been deeply impressed by Britain's contribution / there were *knowledgeable ones* among us who liked to add a parenthetical reference to his style // this has caused *the young people* to be sceptical about the real advantages of *the old people*; elderly people are often much more romantic than younger people // he took them to lunch and dine with *the great* / squirrels and crows would come to the cave, bringing *their young*—see 3.2.1, 3.2.3 ff.

Examples of *one* with this value where *one* is followed by a qualifying adjectival element: *it was impossible for one so sensitive as Newman . . . to resist the happy influence of . . . such an enormous triumph* / he looked like *one dead* / she exposes the dilemma of *one who has been a liberal in early life and now finds himself a conservative* / *I was never one to write by the calendar*.

Colloquially *one* with this value may have a pregnant sense (= 'devotee'): *you're a one for football!*

11.7.3 In the neuter independent *one* is found only in uneducated speech, with the value 'a blow', 'a kiss', and other values depending upon the situation: *fetch him one on the nose* / *that's a good one*.

11.7.4 *One* can represent a noun in the context, either a personal or a non-personal denotation with countable value: *here are some apples—take one*. It does not carry a primary stress, and may be regarded as the substantival form of the indefinite article; *one* is here the equivalent of *an apple*. (Cf. *take one*, i.e. *take one apple*, with a numeral value.) In this usage *one* cannot have the plural form (the concept being expressed by *some*).—Examples: *he had been afraid of policemen, but now he wanted one to take him home* / *she needed a drink more badly today than she ever needed one*.

Unstressed *one* has the same value when followed by *of* + plur.: *one of the boys lost his bat* / *Hector hurried to one of the mammoth stores of London*.

One with this value can be followed by a qualifying adjectival element, and may then have the plural *ones*; but expressions with *some* or *those* are more common.—Examples: *we were five altogether. One English, one French, a German, an Indian and myself* / *the sensation of disappointment was one which Philip could share* / *the doctor's tone had been one of cool amusement* / *it was not everybody's nose; many prefer one with greater body* // *these fundamental problems are*

ones on which the Language Research Unit at Cambridge is working / the rockets in question are ones which are fired from the ground at aircraft in the air.

With the definite article *one* with this value acts as a determinative, in which usage it is common in the plural. (For the relationship between *that/those* and *the one(s)* in this usage, see 7.6.2.)—Examples: *the annoying preacher is the one who begins telling an interesting story but never quite finishes it / he can find some public pulpit to replace the one he lost when he disappeared from the 'Daily Mirror' / there seems no reason why future subways should all be so penitential. Visitors to Rome may recall the ones under the central Via del Tritone built a few years ago.*

11.8.1 *One*, plural *ones*, representing a substantival element in the context, is used as a means of substantivizing after adjectives: *the Commons with a large C and the commons with a small one / Caligula had taken away young Pompey's title saying that it was too magnificent a one for a boy of his age to bear / Mr K. is against 'imperialist' wars and in favour of 'just' ones / a new Cabinet containing no member of the previous one / of those who have been preparing to meet the emergency of war the only ones who have put a really cheerful face on it have been the children / new words are formed from the active suffixes, but the quiescent ones are not recognized as suffixes / when one Sibyl dies another succeeds . . . there was one very famous one, whom Aeneas consulted / the average number of earthquakes experienced in the Japanese Islands is four small ones per day / in spite of the anger of her Belgian uncle, she had remained on good terms with her English one / apart from the splendour of her social position and the momentousness of her political one, she was a person of great wealth / I have little experience of Hindu States, and none of this particular one / he would marry a nice steady girl . . . instead of one of those sloppy ones / our seamen have read Europe many lessons on the value of seapower. No more effective one was ever given than that afforded by the story of the Armada.*

This construction ensures the adjectival value of words that are otherwise nouns: *the family doesn't take a morning paper, just the local evening one / between the booths you can hear people talking with an Oxfordshire accent, a change from the Oxford one / my reminiscences of these lands will not be more pleasant to me than the China ones.*—Corresponding expressions without *one* often make sense, but naturally of a different kind: *the programme for developing*

the missiles will cost about as much as the V-bomber one did / two idyllically tranquil childhoods are brought to life in Cider with Rosie and Children of the Close; the first a country one, the second a cathedral town one / Clancy produced another cigar . . . and stuck it, unlighted, in the place occupied by the old one.

11.8.2 The use of *one* to substantivize adjectives presents certain difficulties, more particularly because colloquial speech uses this construction more widely than does educated English.—Cf. also **3.2.1** ff. and **3.2.8**, for the substantival use of adjectives.

11.8.3 It is obvious that *one* cannot be used for substantivization in the case of non-countable concepts: *bad money drives out good / the United Kingdom remains the best market for Cyprus produce, particularly agricultural.*

11.8.4 After the indefinite article an adjective in the positive normally has a prop-word: *when her sister had shown a healthy pleasure in tearing her dolls to pieces, she had shown an almost morbid one in sewing them up.* Only in markedly literary language can the prop-word be omitted, in cases where the adjective expresses a natural contrast: *with the character of the English skies . . . there goes a certain quality of light . . . it is a wet light rather than a dry.*

This must not be confused with cases where the same word is both adjective and noun: *Dr Bradley had exchanged the silk hat for a felt / his novel is a natural for the cinema and the rights have already been sold.*—Cf. **3.2.4**.

In the corresponding indefinite plural: *there are no Roman remains and very few Saxon ones*—the prop-word may be omitted in formal English: *British troops are out of Jordan and American out of the Lebanon*—particularly where the adjective expresses natural contrast: *there are, of course, bad architects as well as good / rich babies are taller than poor / local political forces are less concentrated than national.*

Note also that constructions with the prop-word instead of the bare adjective as predicative complement belong to the colloquial style: *the list of things which the L.C.C. is not responsible for is a surprising one / this in itself does not make his book a bad one / in the goldware on the table all the flowers were English ones.*

11.8.5 The prop-word is common after the definite article + adjective: *I propose in this chapter and the following one to give an outline of the pioneering work of Korzybski*; in the plural, of a group within a larger whole: *about twenty British soldiers reclining . . . the wakeful ones were smoking*.

In formal English this use of *one* is often avoided by repeating the noun: *the chord glottis and the cartilage glottis*, or by placing the noun after the second of two adjectives: *in one respect the Modern English is more complicated than the old English verb / the present simple and continuous tenses*.

When the adjective expresses a natural contrast, or only the two possibilities mentioned are under consideration in the context, the prop-word is generally omitted: *Anglo-Saxon should be preferred to foreign words, and the short word to the long / the new chapel will be like the old / the lean years which may be expected to follow the fat / Dr Reeves speaks about 'black Africans' and 'white Africans'.— One of his tenets is that the white ones now belong to South Africa just as much as the black // Mr P. was pointing out how the Greek ships were placed and how the Persian / the border country, where the Latin races and the Germanic neutralize one another*.

When *ones* represents a later substantival element its use after the definite article + adjective is colloquial: *the stupid ones among the pupils*; educated speech uses no prop-word here: *the able-bodied among us / the clever among Henry's colleagues were not always loyal*.

Corresponding usages after possessive pronouns: *my humble fate is curiously bound up with your illustrious one / she intends to stand no more nonsense in her new home than she did in her old one // my left leg and my right / his professional instincts were stronger than his personal*.

11.8.6 *One(s)* after a comparative: *when he looked up, he looked through the weak lens, and when he looked down, he saw through the stronger one / at thirty you will have more ideas and better ones*.—The prop-word is often absent, even in cases where the corresponding positive would require it: *I know this is not quite the right word, but I can't be bothered to think of a better / Oliver snuffed always in the rich earth of Mayfair another truffle, a blacker, a bigger, farther off / there were two tables laid . . . he and Ann were expected to preside at the smaller*.—The prop-word is particularly often absent when

the adjective expresses contrast: *the legislative power is exercised by two Houses, an Upper and a Lower / I humoured him, after the fashion of an older brother who has built fond dreams around a younger.*

11.8.7 While *one(s)* is commonly used after absolute superlatives, the prop-word is distinctly colloquial with the superlative with comparative value: *the next boom is not likely to assume the dimensions of the last one / there are still too many obstacles. The two biggest ones are the peasants and the Roman Catholic Church / Livia had tens of thousands of Augustus's letters . . . She chose from these thousands the fifteen most damaging ones she could find // since bombing in the last war was less effective than was expected, men now fail to realise that nuclear bombing in the next will be a hundred times more devastating than anyone can foresee / the work of every true artist largely reflects the formative influences that have gone to make up his character, and among these race and environment are obviously the most powerful / Portugal is the oldest of our allies.*

11.8.8 The prop-word is not used after *own*: *Mrs R. is both loved and respected in many countries besides her own.*

11.8.9 *One(s)* can be added to the pronouns *any, what, which*, to indicate the number: *you may select any one of the books / let us be honest: which one of us would really wish Naples to change?*

After *each* and *another*, and after ordinal numbers, expressions with *one* are more colloquial than corresponding expressions without it: *each one talked little of himself but willingly of the other / there is no sense in pruning a sterile tree. Better dig it up and plant another one / no second meeting ever took place. Instead the people who had attended the first one found themselves the victims of a privately circulated scandal sheet / I shall order a new cassock, though . . . I am still wearing what is only my second one since I bought my ordination outfit // each of them wanted to try / I don't like this hat, show me another / the contestants are two merchant banking houses, B. and L. The first is old established, but declining in power. The second, new, unorthodox, and extremely successful.*

One can be added to *this* and *that*; by this means they can denote persons: *one could see instinctively how this man wore his hat at Ascot, or how that one with a bowler . . .*; or *one* can ensure that *this* and *that* in the neuter are not taken to refer to the content of the context,

but to a specific noun: *Boer reports have a habit of being unduly optimistic. This one is not an exception / was it at that one she was laughing?*—Apart from this, *this one* and *that one* are more colloquial than *this* and *that*: *on the very crest, a full-scale reproduction of the Leaning Tower of Pisa—only this one didn't lean // they went up a wide staircase that groaned and creaked as they trod. This led to . . . / last week and this.*—*These* and *those* rarely have the prop-word: *Belinda's always having money-boxes given to her—mostly those ones in the shape of letter-boxes.*

As mentioned in 5.1.4, cardinal numbers are often substantival: *two can play at that game.* Colloquially, however, phrases with the prop-word may be used instead: *there were a lot of artist kind of people there, and one or two ones from the B.B.C.*

11.9 *One* as a pronoun has an adjectival value before, 1) personal names and 2) indications of time, and is equivalent to *a certain*: *there's a man from my own parish there, a warder; one Whelan // the story of how he one day fished farther up the river than his wont / one winter she bought me an overcoat / one Christmas holidays, I used to have tea at his house nearly every day.*

In the first type *one* was formerly substantival, and the personal name appositional, this often being marked by a comma between them, but they now form a unit in stress and intonation.

One + indications of time with an adverbial function can, when an adjectival element is attached, approximate expressions consisting of preposition + indefinite article + adj. + subst.: *one still morning the boss stood on the veranda / to my astonishment I found, one spring morning, a huge sack of chicken manure // it was on a wet and windy day / on a hot summer's evening he arrived by motor-cycle.* The first type expresses indefinite time, the second stresses the descriptive content of the adjectival element.

Used of the future, *one* in these expressions approximates *some*: *one day I will pay you / some day we will visit the Zoo.*

The Indefinite Article

12 The form *a* is used before a sounded consonant, *an* before a sounded vowel: *a man, a history, a union, a B.A., an island, an heir, an M.P.*

Words beginning with /h/ + an unstressed vowel not infrequently have *an* as well as *a*: *a(n) habitual attitude, a(n) hereditary enemy, a(n) heroic figure, a(n) historian, a(n) hotel, a(n) Hungarian diplomatist, a(n) hysterical outburst*. *An* was once commonly used before words spelt with an initial vowel but pronounced with an initial consonant; this is still encountered occasionally: *an European war, an unanimous popular rising, such an one*; but the normal usage here is *a*.

12.1 Two or more co-ordinate nouns can have a common indefinite article, to indicate that they belong together; or the article may be repeated before each noun, to indicate that they are to be taken separately: *a horse and carriage* = 'a vehicle'; cf. *he bought a horse and a carriage*;—*a girl in a white silk-dress, white straw hat and white shoes* / *the haunting memory of a beauty and a happiness that filled his heart with insatiable longings*.

A common article before a noun having two or more adjectives indicates that the qualities belong to the same individual phenomenon: *he observed a tall and personable man of marriageable age* / *it was an historical and harmonious event which carried his own son to the fulfilment of his task*;—while repetition of the article indicates that it is a question of separate phenomena: *sounds can be held on during a longer or a shorter period of time* / *a fair and a brunette woman were sitting opposite me*; very often however the article is repeated simply for the sake of emphasis: *in an impressive and an expert study* Mr C. S. Orwin called attention to the depopulation of the English countryside / *in an appealing and a charming letter, a Christian layman asks for an article about the Church as the Body of Christ* / *our hostess was a delightful and an entertaining woman*.

12.2 Adjectives are usually placed between the indefinite article and the noun: *a 13-mile traffic-free country walk* / *five coaches of a Sheffield to Manchester train were derailed*;—for post-positive adjectives: *a summer night, just dark and very warm*, see 3.7.5.

After *how(ever)*, *as*, *so* the adjective precedes the article: *how wide a place / however dark a night / as great a man as . . . / so exciting a play*.

The adverbs *quite* and *rather* generally precede the indefinite article: *quite a long time ago / rather a good player*; *too* and *no less* + adj. also precede the indefinite article in most cases: *too early a use of nuclear weapons / no less stony an eye*.—These expressions have a vague connotation of slight excess. When these words and phrases are placed after the article the expressions are more exact statements: *he was a poker-faced clown, and had a quite appalling laugh / a rather surprising thing happened / the English language owes much of its vigour to the variety existing within it . . . there are some who have seen indications of a too great liberty / the Colleges of Advanced Technology have a no less significant part to play in the advancement of knowledge* (viz. as compared with the universities).

The article comes after *what*, *many*, *such*: *what a pity! / many a time / such a difference was precisely the difference between a slave and a serf*.

Half precedes the article: *in half a gale / working together for half a year / half a dozen / half an hour*. Some of these phrases have become stock units so that in colloquial usage they may even be found with determinatives attached: *Dad won't be home for another half an hour / you're worth a half a dozen Helenas to me*.—*Half* + noun can become a compound, in which case the article precedes it: *there was a half-truth in it / a half dozen from my easily infuriated master would be a small price to pay / the recipe included a bottle of brandy and a half bottle of rum*. Thus *half a crown* of the sum (or the coin), *a half-crown* only of the coin.

12.3 The indefinite article is a weak form of the numeral *one* and can still approach it in content: *in an hour or two / wait a minute / in a word / we do not expect to build Rome in a day / the pen he used wrote out three pawn tickets at a time*. *A* and *one* are often almost interchangeable: *she was silent for a moment / he had never for one moment felt remotely attracted by her*; the latter often has a more exact value; see also *a/one dozen, hundred*, etc. **5.1.2**.

The indefinite article may replace *one* before title + name: *a Mr Smith has called*; this indicates that the person's identity is unknown. If there is no title only *one* is used (**11.9**).

There may be a certain approximation between the value of the indefinite article: 'one (any one) of a group', and the content of *one* = 'a certain': *From one rocky height where snow lay deep we looked down into the valleys / On one occasion, a fifth of November, we held high festival in honour of Guy Fawkes / It was a Monday evening, late in July / was that done in London when one sunny day stirred old memories?*

12.4 In the usage discussed above, the plurals corresponding to the expressions mentioned would be phrases with *some*, *a few*, or the like.—But the content of the indefinite article may be further reduced, so that it may be regarded as a device required in the case of countables in the singular when no determinative is attached: *this is a dull book*. Corresponding plurals have no determinatives: *these are dull books*.

This (formally) necessary expression of countability is to be found in many phrases containing countables, even if the countable concept is not very evident: *Experience has given people a nose for genuine crises / sometimes the most composed preachers are put in a panic / she takes an interest in his work / walking gives one an appetite / he had a fever*. Cf. *to keep house / be with child / (fall of snow :) it is like being on board ship / it is not yet possible to regard as fact earlier estimates that the closest distance of approach to the earth would be 40,000 kilometres*.

Uncountables do not take the indefinite article unless a certain aspect of the concept is to be denoted: *a courage like yours*; for this reason such nouns will have the indefinite article particularly when an adjective with a distinctive value is attached: *questions of an international character / the air has an unaccustomed freshness*; but compare: *it was very musical and pleasant laughter / the accident occurred in dense fog*.

In spite of its countable associations *part* has no article in the sense 'some of': *Bodiam Castle was built in 1386 as part of the defences against the French raids / many words used originally purely in a scientific sense have tended to become part of our general vocabulary*; with the article attached *part* denotes a certain (clearly delineated) section: *the forces that threaten the freedom of the individual are a part of twentieth-century civilization*.

Co-ordinate nouns may have no article, even if the single noun would require it: *We watched the polecat hunting through the garden evidently in search of rat or mouse*.

After *kind of* and *sort of* countables in the singular are found both with and without the indefinite article, more frequently without it: *What sort of a damned fool do you take me for? / a very thin sort of a fork // Anne isn't that sort of woman at all / what sort of soul?*

12.5 Proper names are not usually combined with the indefinite article; if it is added, they may 1) become appellatives: *the cruelties of a Hitler / he thinks he is a Napoleon*, 2) remain proper names and denote aspects of the concept (cf. above, on uncountables): *it was a happy, bold and buccaneering Baines, even though it was, when you looked closer, a desperate Baines / he had never seen any future for an independent Katanga.*

12.6 As predicative complements, when used in apposition, and after *as*, personal denotations with the value: 'one of the class in question' have the indefinite article: *he became a Minister / was Alfonso XIII merely an engaging polo-playing sportsman, who happened to be a king / Telephus, a son-in-law of Priam attempted to prevent a landing of the Greeks / he might be trained as a driver*. If the connotation 'member of a class' is not attached to the substantive, the article is absent: *the Duke of Clarence wishes to be king*; this restriction to one possibility is often expressed by a prepositional phrase: *Sir J. B., M.P. for Holland-with-Boston and a Junior Lord of the Treasury, was killed in a road accident yesterday / he was bishop of Durham*. The article is likewise absent when what is in question is not membership of a class, but 1) the different aspects, or 2) the changing situation (occupation, rank and the like) of the person concerned; the former value is particularly frequent with *as*, the latter with *turn*: *Dr Cicely Saunders has been nurse, almoner, and doctor / he met the enigmatic Saxby, wandering Philosopher and man of action / the critic as creative artist / as American, the writer has distrusted Europe; as writer, he has envied the riches available to his European counterpart / he had turned spy / Mr Bernstein turns publisher*.—Thus also with the addition of *enough*: *I am still optimist enough to credit life with invincibility*.

After *ever* and *never* these substantives have no indefinite article: *Tennyson belonged, if ever poet belonged, to Class 2 / never was man so cross*.

12.7 The indefinite article + noun can be used to represent a class: *a lion is a dangerous animal / an island is surrounded on all*

sides by water / dogs love a car.—Cf. the corresponding use of the definite article + noun, which differs from this usage in having a distinctive value, i.e. *the island is . . .* would express contrast with *peninsula*, or the like.

12.8 The indefinite article can have the value *per*: *several million dollars a head / twopence a plate / twice a day*.—Cf. a similar use of the definite article, *eighteenpence the word*.

12.9 *Few* and *little* signify *hardly any(thing)*, but *some(thing)* when the indefinite article is attached: *few people study Latin today / the invaders numbered a few dozen / he knows little or nothing / a little more sugar, please*.

PARTICLES

13 Among these are reckoned the following types of invariable words:

1. unconnected particles, i.e. interjections, e.g. *oh*, *bush* /ʃ:/:;
2. unilaterally connected particles, i.e. adverbs like *away*, *back*;
3. bilaterally connected particles, i.e.
 - a. conjunctions, e.g. *and*, *or*; *if*, *unless*;
 - b. prepositions, e.g. *at*, *with*.

Interjections

13.1 Some of these contain sounds which are not found in ordinary words, e.g. *ugh* /u:ɪx/, *tut* (the alveolar click). They are independent elements of the utterance, not related syntactically to other parts of the sentence, but parenthetical insertions which as to content vaguely correspond to a full sentence. A number of words and phrases otherwise belonging to other parts of speech are also used as interjections, e.g. *Well!* / *Why!* / *Dear me!* / *Thank you* // *those who sigh to-day for 'a good old-fashioned Christmas' assume that . . . a mild Christmas was never known before, say, 1860.*

Adverbial Particles

13.2 Many of these serve both as prepositions and as adverbs, e.g. *in*, *over* (see below), others cannot take a complement, e.g. *away*, *back*, *out*.*)

These particles form compounds with verbs, and apart from exclamations, where they may introduce the sentence (e.g. *Away they went!*), they are in most cases placed immediately after the verb: *he*

*) *Out* belongs to this group in British English, but in the U.S. *out* belongs to the first-mentioned type, being used as a preposition when it means 'through': *he went out the door* = (Brit.) . . . *out of* . . .

came in / he dropped off during the sermon. If the verbal compound has a substantive as its object, the particle may precede or follow the latter: *put on your hat / put your hat on*; if the object is a personal pronoun, the particle follows it: *put it on*, unless the pronoun is stressed, in which case it may be preceded by the particle: *That won't take in me!*

Conjunctions

13.3 These are either co-ordinating or subordinating.

Co-ordinating conjunctions connect two clauses or phrases or words; the two elements connected are of the same grammatical function (i.e. substantival, adjectival, etc.): *the horse kicked and reared, but he could not unseat his rider / pogroms are generally spontaneous, or are organized by popular tribunes / Philip of Spain had his differences with the Pope on the rival claims of royal and papal inquisition.*

13.3.1 Co-ordinating conjunctions can only stand between the elements they connect; thus they differ, in the case of connected clauses, from subordinating conjunctions, which can also introduce the first of the two clauses. Compare *for*, which used as a conjunction is now†) only co-ordinating, and *because*, which is subordinating: *their economy is much more varied than is usual in the Caribbean; for they produce important quantities of oil and asphalt / because . . . Mrs Baines was upstairs . . . , he allowed himself a little acidity.* And, in the case of connected words and phrases, they differ from prepositions, which with their complements may stand in any of several positions (see **13.4.5**). Compare *and* and *with*: *Cromwell and his army of Independents seemed invincible // Colonel Hicks, with an Egyptian force of 10,000 men, was utterly routed at Kashgal / Monk marched southwards from Scotland with his men / with a handful of 500 men Clive marched upon the town of Arcot.*

13.3.2 A subordinating conjunction introduces its clause, joining it to a principal clause, of which the subordinate clause constitutes 1) a substantival, 2) an adjectival, or 3) an adverbial member: 1) *whether liberty and political asylum are still real issues in this*

†) Formerly *for* was a subordinating conjunction: *for the time shall not seem tedious, I'll tell thee what befell me* (Shakespeare: III Henry VI III i 9).

country remains to be seen (the subordinate clause is the subject of the principal clause) / *the best way is that you ask the man himself* (predicative complement) / *that the Spaniards should behave as foes they could understand* (object), 2) *the idea that I shall give my consent is ridiculous*, 3) *I'll finish the letter before I leave*. Subordinating conjunctions may also introduce abbreviated clauses: *the U2s, whether operating from Texas, Turkey, Britain or the Philippines, are making their 'peaceful meteorological researches'*. Cf. 1.6.2.2.

13.3.3 Some words, e.g. *as, that, when, where*, may serve as relatives or as conjunctions. The difference between the two functions is sometimes slight: *the NEW STATESMAN never had a good word to say for him in all the years when he dominated the Labour government*; here, having an antecedent, *when* functions as a relative; but if *in all the years* is left out, it would be a conjunction, because it would then introduce a clause functioning as an adverbial member of the principal clause.

Numerous phrases ending in *as* or *that* serve as conjunctions, e.g. *in so far as, so long as; in order that, now that*, etc.: *he started as soon as he received the news / the 'Forty-five' was far more serious than the 'Fifteen', for the reason that it had a leader / W.'s ambition offers the best hope for the Caribbean, provided that he can find a political philosophy capable of inspiring his own people*. In many phrases *that* may drop out, leaving words of different classes as conjunctions: *he's working hard for fear he should fail / the instant he comes, let me know / directly I had done it, I knew I had made a mistake / supposing they were to choose someone else, the kingdoms would be again divided*. Thus also *by the time, in case, now, seeing, provided, suppose*, etc.—Cf. 10.6.1 last paragraph.

Some words are prepositions as well as conjunctions; see below.

Though is used both as a conjunction and as an adverb: *though it was very late, he went on working / I believe him though*. In the latter function it is placed at the end of a sentence; placing it earlier in the sentence is frowned upon by some grammarians, but the position is not infrequent: *First, though, let us look at those inflectional suffixes which are indispensable*.

Prepositions

13.4 A few particles have the three functions: conjunction, adverb and preposition, e.g. *after, before, since*: *before he came / as much influence as before / before his death*; others are conjunctions and prepositions, e.g. *for, till, until*: *war is no way to remove the threat . . . for no one in any responsible position believes that it is / demands for a pay increase*; still others—and these form the largest group—are adverbs as well as prepositions, e.g. *behind, in, over*: *Who is walking behind? / the sun is behind the clouds // the name of the firm with the manager's name underneath / What was written underneath it?*

This double or triple function of these words made O. Jespersen in his *Philosophy of Grammar* (pp. 87 ff.) regard these words as one group: particles; he compares the use of *in* with and without its complement: *in the house / is he in?* with verbs used transitively and intransitively.—However, many particles cannot be used without a complement, for instance *at, into, of*, and some can only be without a complement in certain of their meanings or as part of certain compound verbs, for instance *in, on, to*: *is he in? / don't give in!*, but *there the house had stood all these years without a soul in it // he had nothing on / Come on!*, but *Melsbroek Airport always appears to me to have a great number of larks on it // the door blew to / he came to, but a rickety table with a zinc top to it*.

Consequently prepositions are better considered a distinct group. Their characteristics are that the members of this group are indeclinable, subordinating connectives, i.e. the preposition takes as its object a noun or a phrase with the function of a noun, which it connects with another part of the sentence or the whole of the sentence: *he handed round a photograph of himself in bathing-costume / On the first half of the agenda—the problems of the multiracial societies—Mr Macleod has made a most valuable contribution*.

In certain cases the distinction between prepositions and conjunctions is difficult to make; this holds good of *as, but, than*.

That *as* is a conjunction is obvious in cases like: *such men as he are intolerable / I cannot tolerate such men as him*; but what is its function in the type: *why aren't people as good as me??* If *me* is considered the oblique case of *I* then *as* must be counted as a preposition, but if *me* is considered the independent form of the pronoun it is still possible to regard *as* as a conjunction (this view is taken in 6.1.4). But in the type *he appeared on the stage as me*, where *as* equals

'in the capacity of', *as* can only be regarded as a preposition, seeing that it behaves like prepositions as regards its object (cf. 13.4.5): *Hell is the incapacity to be other than the creature one finds oneself ordinarily behaving as.*

But equalling 'except' has the function of a preposition: *no one saw it but me* (cf. what is said in 6.1.5); and it is possible (though unusual) to separate *but* and its object: *that's what the war brought nothing but.*

The case of *than* is almost the same as that of *as* (cf. 6.1.4). It must be considered a preposition in the cases where the noun following it is not co-ordinated with a substantive or another word acting as a substantive: *the Bill went further than that*, similarly in the literary phrase *than whom* (see 10.2.1).

In the case of the numerous words which function as adverbs as well as prepositions: *about, behind, by, down, in, off*, etc. *) the two usages are as a rule easily distinguishable: *they sailed up the river / Professor Erhard presided over today's meeting // the stream dried up / the milk boiled over*. It is only on paper that the two functions seem to merge in cases like *the judge summed up the evidence / he turned over a new leaf*; for, when spoken, such sentences are unambiguous, *up* and *over* forming sound units with their respective verbs; and furthermore the adverb may be placed after the object: '*Crisis Looms*' is how the 'Screw Advertiser' *sums the situation up / he turned the coins over*—which is not possible in the case of a preposition.

13.4.1 When a prepositional phrase follows a verb, the preposition may be so closely connected with the verb that the object of the preposition is rather the object of verb + preposition: *he came at me / this calls for quick action / the water turned into ice*; compare the spaced phrases with *attack/necessitate/become*. In not a few cases verbs are used thus intransitively followed by a preposition, as well as transitively, with but slight differences as to content: *play hide and seek / play at Indians / What do you wish? / Could lost innocence be recaptured? And ought we to wish for it? / the town can boast a fine swimming pool / he boasts of being the best player*.

That the preposition in such cases is more closely connected with the verb than with its complement is seen in the passive: *quick action was called for / if any mark of human occupation is met with here . . . , it . . . takes the form of the solitary cottage of some shepherd //*

*) Difference in form between adv. and prep. is seen in the case of *to* and *fro(m)*: *Journeys to and fro between London and Paris / arrangements to transport visitors to and from their hostels by bus.*

I feel discriminated against (see 1.5.9.7).—This close connection is also apparent in such phrases as: *it is get-at-able* or *such grief wasn't decent, it was not liveable with*.

Similarly a preposition is often closely connected with the adjective it follows so that the preposition is greatly reduced as to content and may be said to be nothing but a formal means of connecting the adjective with its complement: *she was afraid of the dog / they are dependent on their parents / he is content with little*.

The adjective and adverb *near* may be used without the preposition *to* to connect it with its complement; thus *near* comes to function as a preposition; the same holds good of its comparative and superlative: *he read with his finger on the line and his nose near to the paper / the house is near the road // nearer to God / the manager himself shifted my bed nearer the window // I was sitting next to him at dinner / they were seated next the doors*.

In the case of *like* the loss of *to* is now complete: *they behave like children*; cp. the old usage: *Romans now Have thews and limbs like to their ancestors* (Shakespeare: Julius Caesar I iii 81).

Worth is only used with its complement immediately attached and thus has the function of a preposition: *this picture is worth £100*.

Besides the type of preposition mentioned so far there are numerous complex prepositions such as *apart from*, *because of*, *in comparison with*, *in front of*, etc.

13.4.2 Pronouns that have different forms as subject and object appear in the latter form when the complement of a preposition: *between you and me*. Mistaken attempts at refined speech may result in the nominative appearing instead of the accusative: *between you and I* (see 6.1.5).—In the case of prepositions which also function as conjunctions this tendency is of course more pronounced: *everyone except I went there* (ibid.).

In colloquial speech *who* is used for *whom* when the interrogative pronoun opens the sentence and the preposition appears at its end: *Who is this from?* (see 9.1).

Whoever is normally used instead of *whomever* as the object of the preposition when the latter is put at the end of the sentence: *ask whoever you speak to*.

13.4.3 As the object of a preposition we find substantives, and most words and phrases and clauses which can be used substantively: *the Soviet Foreign Minister was afterwards entertained*

to dinner by Lord Home / Mr Butler has been under attack from the Right / the party remains far from united / by then he had completed his recruit's training / fetishes stand for nothing beyond themselves / a foreign affairs debate on the motion for the adjournment instead of on a motion asking for support for a specific policy / he has been here for getting on for thirty years / they came back with two more passengers than they went away with / I waited until after she got here / he ought to devote his first three months to restoring their prestige and to lecturing the executive . . . on how they can put this right / he gave orders for the work to be started // Mr Macleod's promotion gives a mixed impression—good in that a man of his liberalism is moved to a central place; bad in that the appointment may bring out the less liberal side of Mr Macleod's character / he was lying on his back with eyes wide open / he was standing with his head ducked . . . listening / she turned suddenly, staring at the kitchen already settling into winter twilight, with the red eye of the fire now burning sulkily.

Note to the last example but three.—As a rule a preposition cannot govern a *that*-clause; only *except* and *in* in certain of their significations appear in this construction (see 6.2.8). In formal language this also applies to *save*: *his own limitations save that he knew that he knew neither Latin nor French, were all unknown to him.*—Other prepositions, if they are reduced as to content, and are nothing but formal grammatical connectives, may be omitted so that the *that*-clause is immediately attached to the governing word: *the general tranquillity of the Trucial Coast is evidence that their main task of establishing order has already been accomplished / the reason that Mr Gaitskell was away from the House of Commons last Tuesday was that he had cancelled all his appointments / fears have arisen that in consequence of the agreement Nigeria's freedom of action might be impaired // Are you aware that you are sitting on my hat? / I made sure that he would be there / the Government was clear that it had the right to legislate for the secession of a territory // I agree that your plan is better / I wonder that he didn't kill you.*

Interrogative clauses are often prepositional complements and even if the preposition is nothing but a grammatical connective it is usually retained: *concern for the pilot is quite separate from the question of whether his journey is really necessary / you would be afraid of what other people would say of you / it depends on which mood changes to what.* In some cases however constructions

with and without the preposition seem equally frequent: *each member had his or her own idea of what was best for me / I have no idea what you mean*; in still other cases the preposition is most frequently left out: *they had made up their minds what to do / I don't care what people say / we may wonder whether the average layman does much more than sit below the pulpit*.

Note to the three last examples in the first section of this paragraph: Only *with* and *without* can have a nexus consisting of substantive + predicative complement as their object. *With* + nexus may as to content approximate to a loosely attached nexus, as in: *he sat forward in the chair, his eyes fixed on her face*. The loosely attached nexus connotes attendant circumstances, the *with*-phrase the 'how' of the predicate.

13.4.4 Prepositional phrases may be 1) substantival, 2) adjectival and 3) adverbial:

(1) The prepositional phrase may be the subject or object of a sentence and the object of a preposition: *At night is no time to go there alone / for him to speak at all was a wonderful thing* (see 1.3.6.9) / *this 53-mile journey should take about two hours / a kinder vinolent atmosphere had put to sleep the hatreds and suspicions of before dinner / we scooted across at about 40 miles an hour*.

(2) A prepositional phrase may be attached attributively to a substantive and as a rule is placed after it. Further it may be a predicative complement: *the book on the shelf / the girl in brown, with the brown eyes / in those gardens were sometimes to be found a few of those out of fashion flowers that had remained there because generations of gardeners had an affection for them / he was in such a fright*.

Note that *of*-phrases with a descriptive value used appositionally and predicatively may alternate with corresponding expressions without *of*: *the swirling, splashing, squirming mass of fish of all shapes and sizes . . . is a fitting reward . . . / a couple of small boys of about my own age / the sea and the sky are usually of a deep bright blue / (these) observations are certainly of no use to navigators // What shape is it? / a potato the size of an egg / these tubers are not the right size / he is my age / S. was most effective to look upon, his bright hair being still curly and his eyes a wondrous blue / it's no use to me / Compare also mixed terms like *he was a man of over six feet high*.*

(3) A prepositional phrase used adverbially is placed immediately after an intransitive verb or after the object of a transitive verb (if the object is heavy the phrase may however precede) if the prepositional phrase qualifies the predicate. If it qualifies the whole of the sentence there are further possibilities: *the liberal era began with his appointment / the police were not justified in firing on the deserter / she pulled her skirts about her / the conference then carried on a show of hands an emergency motion 'deploring' the Soviet Union's resumption of nuclear tests, and 'regretting' that the Americans had felt obliged to follow suit // before Christmas W. had never gone up to that end of the room to talk / Blandings Castle on August Bank Holiday became, in his lordship's opinion, a miniature Inferno / the man under the tree seemed now to notice them for the first time.*

The approximation of adverbial prepositional phrases to substantives used adverbially is mentioned in 2.1.5. Here are a few more examples: *the work must be finished in one way or another / Bridges was right when he said Milton scanned his verse one way and read it another // We'll stop for a minute and see poor W. / stop a moment! // then, in about 1904, it seems to have occurred to him that he was getting rather old / the 'Baltic' developed into an important organized association from meetings (starting about 1704) between merchants trading with the Russian ports.*

13.4.5 A preposition is followed by its complement except in the following cases:

(1) Interrogative sentences and clauses are very often introduced by the interrogative, while the preposition governing it is placed at the end: *What did you want paper for? / I asked him what the rose-beetles were for, and why he had them tied with pieces of cotton / what a gallant spirit he played the game in! / Where do you come from? / Who is this from? / I don't know who she is with now / no general policy seems to exist about whom you can peer at.* The preposition may however precede the interrogative in the formal type of language: *By what train shall I go? / I sought to discover in what lay her peculiar gift / With what scorn he would have met Mr Shaw's taunt / To whom should I send this? / he didn't know to whom he should turn for help / the Government would have to decide in which ways each of the major industries ought to expand / of how many more is this true?* Further, the preposition precedes the interrogative when the preposition is of reduced content and forms a stock phrase

with the complementary substantive: *in what respect was he suspicious?* / *the shower of 'Collected Poems' we are going through at present underlines to what an extent this kind of volume has become a recognized milestone in a writer's life* / *I must proceed now to show in which way it operates.*

In abbreviated sentences and clauses consisting only of a preposition and an interrogative as its complement the preposition normally precedes: *'You should see the gardens,' she said aloud. But to whom?* / *'The criterion of reality is its intrinsic irrelevance.' . . . 'To what?' / Salvation, Deliverance . . . —but from what?* Only colloquially does the preposition come at the end in this type: *'I was recommended to you.'* — *'Who by?'* / *'Apologize?' she said. 'What about?'* Thus always in the expression *what(ever) for* = 'why': *I shall be hanged. Yes. I don't know what for* / *'They want some of our good money.'* — *'Whatever for?'*

(2) The object of a preposition that forms part of the predicate may be moved to the beginning of the sentence for the sake of emphasis: *this I want to hear about* / *that I am not so sure of.* The whole prepositional phrase may also be moved to the beginning of the sentence; this is not quite so emphatic: *of the rest of the guests she was scarcely aware* / *F. was wrong . . . of that there could be no doubt.* — Compare the two corresponding possibilities in the case of emphasis by means of split sentences: *it is his talents he relies on* / *it's of you he is afraid.*

(3) Relative clauses with the relatives *who(m)* or *which* as the complement of a preposition often have the preposition at the end: *Mary, whom he was in love with* / *an assurance which we had learnt by bitter experience not to have any faith in.* In formal language the preposition precedes these relatives: *the Nature-God to whom all must come back at last* / *the local peasant dances, for which he had a passion.*

As and *that* used as relatives cannot be preceded by a preposition; a preposition with one of these words as its complement is always placed at the end of the clause: *such things as we are sure of* / *the only thing that they disapprove of.*

(4) In relative contact-clauses where an interpolated relative would be the complement of a preposition the preposition is placed at the end and is without any complement: *the man I told you of has come back* / *the sort of fellow a young girl falls in love with* / *I've marked on the orders the time they should hand them in by.*

This also applies to adjectival sentence elements consisting of an infinite verbal form with a preposition attached: *make the world a better place to live in / the money was his to do as he liked with / this was one of my favourite areas for hunting in.*

Compare with the above the cases where the preposition also is left out: *there is nothing remarkable in the way it is used / the day you exchanged the prisoners // this, I decided, was really the way to die.* (Cf. 10.6.1(4)).—Cf. also the type: *in the way that lyrical poetry is expressive* (see 10.5.8).

Formal English here prefers expressions with preposition + relative: *the way in which it is expressed / P.'s comment may serve to point a moral with which to end this chapter.*

(5) When verbal compounds ending in a preposition are turned into the passive, the complement of the preposition becomes the subject in finite constructions, whereas it is absent in infinite constructions: *these were, of course, highly thought of / it was something absorbing that had to be pored over // How strange it is to be talked to in such a way / a bird of great strength of character, and not to be trifled with / other arrangements agreed upon are designed to preserve the unity of Buganda / to hear a perfectly commonplace woman raved about in an absolutely absurd manner / he does not like being laughed at.*

Not all prepositions behave as described in the preceding paragraph. Some prepositions are not (or very rarely) found without a succeeding complement; such are *concerning, during, except, near*: *thirty years during which Europe had enjoyed peace / books, saving only the professor's own, you may ignore.* This also applies to prepositional compounds: *he consulted his watch at 10-minute intervals, in spite of which the service finished late.*

When *of* has a partitive or possessive value it is as a rule not separated from its complement: *of the grant aid more than half is money already allocated / four people of which I am one / of all the foul relatives with which we are cluttered, she is definitely the worst / John Wesley's conversion, of which the story is told on another page.* (Cf. 10.1.1.)

Lastly, it may be noted that a preposition used figuratively or metaphorically is not nearly so apt to appear finally as a preposition used in a literal sense; compare *Jane was a woman with whom age did not count* and *we know the man you came in with.*

13.4.6 As to concept, prepositions may be more or less clear. If they represent spatial or temporal relations, their meanings are so clear that a change of preposition entails a marked alteration of content: *a path **along** which I hurried* (cf. *across*) / *he collapsed speechless **into** his chair* (cf. *in*) / *a forest of flowers **through** which roamed creatures I had never seen before* (cf. *in*). The use of prepositions with clear-cut meanings may be a stylistic device, expressing in one word that stands out in the context what would otherwise need a lengthier formulation: *once . . . the play resolves itself **into** an acid discussion between the psychiatrist and the priest . . . the characters lose mystery and we are out of the living-room and **into** cold print*.

When a preposition is used figuratively or metaphorically, and particularly when it is nothing but a formal grammatical device, as in *as one **in** an ecstasy he repeated the words / words are a delight **in** themselves / the works of Shakespeare*, the concept expressed by the preposition may be so blurred or weak that one preposition may be substituted for another without any essential alteration of the meaning of the sentence: *England has changed **in** many ways, but nobody can agree **on** what ways* (cf. *as to*) / *the reopening of Parliament, it was said, would pave the way **to** a solution of the Congo crisis* (cf. *for*); and not infrequently there is vacillation in co-ordinate prepositional phrases: *woods had turned **into** masses of raw cotton and trees **to** pyramids of wool / Nan, contemptuous **of** her mother for thinking such trivial pretence worth while, and **with** Rosalind for thinking malicious exposure worth while, would shrug her shoulders*.

Prepositional phrases with *to* functioning as a formal grammatical device may be the equivalent of the indirect object. Compare the following examples: *Mr Gaitskell needs more time **in** which to consolidate . . . and Mr Macmillan may not give it **to** him* / *'Tick him off'—'Leave it **to** me' / we pay homage **to** his genius // the events of the past year have dealt **these people** a wounding blow / what he (i.e. the pupil) can put together, is not necessarily what the teacher offers him / Sidney paid **Horace** seven-and-sixpence a week. The prepositional phrase here carries more weight than the indirect object, as balanced against the rest of the sentence. In corresponding passive expressions the same two types are found if the element in question is placed after the verb: *not that he would be too proud to accept help if it were offered **to** him / there is no country **in** which so absolute a homage is paid **to** wealth // the bonus wages paid **the brickies** seemed relatively small. The prepositional phrase may also open the sentence: *one of those men **to** whom much has been given*; but if the**

indirect object of the active sentence is placed at the beginning of the passive sentence it can only have the function of the subject: *it is given the greatest weight / our High Commissioner in Accra is left the delicate task of assessing the security situation.*

APPENDIX

SEMANTICALLY RELATED PREPOSITIONS

Semantic treatment of prepositions would in many cases require long quotations if unambiguous examples were to be given of the different shades of meaning. Thus, in 13.4.5(1) last two examples, the reader had to accept the statement that 'what(ever) for' in the given context corresponds to 'why' and not, in the two examples, to respectively 'for what offence' and 'for what purpose'. In this appendix explanations have been added in brackets in most of the cases where background information seems necessary; it is the author's hope that these will help to give the examples illustrative value.

The content of prepositions may be distinctive, reduced, or all but lost.

Except where discussion may throw light on difficult aspects of their usage, prepositions whose sense is unambiguous, such as *on* and *in* in the book *is in the desk / on the desk*, will not be included here, since in such cases there is no approximation in content, and no vacillation in use. Mention will be made only of cases where the different contents of two or more prepositions may for some reason be very similar, for instance the two prepositions mentioned followed by substantives such as *field / plain*.

The reduced value, ranging from the vaguely figurative to the metaphorical, often makes it possible to use more than one preposition, with fairly closely related but never identical content, in more or less uniform contexts, e.g. *at / on a page / surviving examples of the buildings planned by London architects, for Londoners of many kinds along the centuries / Down the centuries more and more live beasts were brought to Smithfield for sale / Over the centuries Lloyd's have developed an uncanny skill in assessing risks*. This is the type of case more especially considered here: both cases where prepositions of reduced content approach one another and where they approach the distinctive type and the type whose content is all but lost. But it is not enough that they are interchangeable in uniform contexts; in *Both the League and the UN were founded in the belief that collective*

security, rather than the balance of power, was the key to peace, in could be replaced by *on*, but cases of this kind are not included, since two different meanings are expressed. For the same reason *with* and *in* are not discussed in *Geneva ended with no treaty / the disastrous but celebrated journey ended in his death*, since they are clearly different (with the association 'result in' in the second example).

Prepositions with the greatest loss of content, namely prepositions used as grammatical means of expression such as *of* in the same sense as the genitive, *by* to indicate an agent, etc., are of course firmly established, and need not in themselves be discussed here. But in many contexts these grammatical means of expression may, as already mentioned, approach other prepositions with slightly less reduced content, e.g. *covered by / with*. These are dealt with.

Attention is thus mainly concentrated on the use of prepositions in cases where the same reality may be expressed by means of different prepositions.

Prepositions and compound prepositions are listed in alphabetical order, with reference to the preposition under which the points of approximation are discussed.

About, around, round

¹ Indicating position: *she looked a little heavy about the eyes / about this table fifty or sixty persons were assembled / a scarlet sash, knotted loosely about her waist / / the atmosphere in and around Danzig / life had closed in a perfect circle the blank wall it had built around him / all around us were signs of decay / / the normal life of the hospital flows steadily on all round you / a lucky boy . . . who lived . . . with salt water all round him / a noose round his neck.*

About connotes proximity to the complement + the concept of 'surrounding'; the latter is vague, so that the complement is not necessarily completely surrounded: *throngs may crowd about a man whose back is to the wall / this plant grows in the meadows about Oxford / the ruffle of lace about her throat.*

Around and *round* are used when the idea of a circle or curve is attached to the surrounding phenomenon: *her eyes had a suggestive redness around them / that boy hiding round the corner*; of these two *around* predominates in the U.S.A., and *round* in Britain. When *around* is used in British English, the surrounding phenomenon is usually expressed by a substantive associated with the non-countable

or the plural: *the pipe music shrilled suddenly **around** her / she began to be frightened at the pandemonium of sights and noises that surged **around** her / the Soviet industrial complex which has grown **around** Tiflis and Baku / They walk away, arms **around** each other's necks.*

2 Indicating movement: *he flicks at the bats circling **about** her head / he paused and looked **about** him / they flutter round you like moths **about** a candle // she twined the flowers in wreaths . . . and bound them in rings **around** the brown water-jars / Putting her gloved hands **around** his neck she kissed him coolly / the golden jubilee conference of the Town Planning Institute last week revolved **around** what we now know as Buchanan / (U.S.) he flew **around** the world // he put his arm **round** her / I find my own thoughts always swinging **round** the same pole / He only wanted to get **round** the next corner.*

The distinction is as above: (a)round carries an association of a circle of curve.

3 With substantives denoting 'area' as their complement these prepositions are often used without any concept of 'surrounding', denoting instead 'here and there within (the area)'; this applies both to position and to movement: *Don't leave bottles, tins and papers **about** the park / No end of fun he had crawling **about** the floor after his trains / Moody, restless, and unhappy he wandered like a ghost **about** the town // (U.S.) travel **around** the country / (U.S.) he wandered **around** the city // the Savage wandered restlessly **round** the room / she was arranging them in one or two vases **round** their sitting-room / the story had gone briskly **round** the town.*—Here again (a)round carries a certain association of a circle or curve.—The value of the prepositions here corresponds to the very common value of these words used as adverbs: *Those who did not drink walked **about** / the papers were left lying **around** / let's go into the town and look **round**.* If such phrases, with the words used as adverbs, are followed by a preposition + substantive denoting area: *How would Mrs R. like it if . . . he . . . rushed **about** over her lawn / He also potted **about** in her garden,* there may be an approximation in content to the above-mentioned examples where *about*, etc., are prepositions: *they walked **about** (in) the garden.* The difference is that in the type: *he well remembered wandering **about** in the park day after day, trying to get away from it (: restlessness) / Someone was walking furiously **about** in the garden of the last cottage,* the prepositional phrases *in the park, in the garden* indicate locality solely, while corresponding expressions

without *in*: *wandering about the park / walking about the garden*, in addition to expressing locality, may have associations such as 'be interested in, enjoy, etc. . . .', i.e. as well as being the complement of *about*, *the park*, *the garden* may also be the object of the concept of action contained in the expression *wander about*, *walk about*. (Compare 13.4.1.) In *There were always some of them* (: envelopes) *lying there, or about the room, bulging with manuscripts / The lights were scattered about the room* there is thus a secondary concept of 'stamping (: leaving traces on) the room'; but such transitive associations (i.e. influence on the complement) are not a necessary connotation of these phrases: *she was drifting about London without a penny in her purse / Ella picked up sundry belongings without which she never travelled about the house*. — Two clear examples with *round* with and without this secondary concept are: *How does she* (: Dorothy Perkins) *feel when she walks round a garden, incognito, and hears people whispering about her?* (*walk round* is almost equivalent to e.g. *inspect*) // *Boswell was trundling Dr Johnson round Scotland*.

4 Indicating approximate dimensions and the like: *The gold stock has declined by about \$1,700 million a year / at about 9.30 / about nine years old* // (U.S.) *the gold stock has declined by around half that amount during 1961* // (U.S.) *I'll visit you around Easter* // *he's ready to pay somewhere round £1,000 for a car* // (Cockney) *meet me round 7 o'clock*.

As indicated by the notes in brackets, in this usage *about* is normally used in British, and *around* in American English.

About, of, on (anent, as concerns, as regards, as to, concerning, re, regarding, relating to, respecting, touching, with reference to, with regard to, etc. *)

With a substantival complement denoting a topic these prepositions may be said to approximate one another in content. Those within the brackets are technical or mannered words, used in good writing only with special associations or in a special style; not all of them have the full status of a preposition, since several of them seldom occur separated from their complement; thus *the subject which I wrote to you concerning* is generally frowned upon. They have an official or formal ring. These words + their complement form more or less

*) There are nearly fifty ways of expressing this concept and its various shades of meaning. See Simeon Potter: *Referential Prepositions*, Britannica, Heidelberg 1960, pp. 210 ff.

independent phrases, the predicate being complete even without them, while *about*, *of*, *on* + complement form part of the predicate. Compare *I told him what I had heard about his father* and *I told him what I had heard reported concerning his intimacy with the actress*. — The particular qualities of some of the bracketed prepositions or compound prepositions may be mentioned here: for *as to* see *as for*; — *re* has a legal flavour: *re estate of R.*; some have certain associations corresponding to their verbal origin: *concerning* (*as concerns*) carries the subordinate idea 'affecting, influencing': *make laws concerning public welfare*; — *regarding* (*as regards*, *with regard to*) indicates that the circumstance stated applies to the complement in particular: *She is lax as regards allowing her daughters to meet young men / they avoided all discussion regarding the scandal / the gesture of 'full implementation and faithful execution' promised with regard to the new civil rights law takes on a sinister note*; — *relating to* carries the subordinate idea '(closely) connected with': *matters relating to the maintenance of international peace and security are appropriate for regional action*; — *respecting* (*with respect to*) indicates selection — that the complement is the choice made among co-ordinate possibilities: *he had nothing to say respecting Spain*. — But these expressions are very commonly used merely in an attempt to avoid the so frequently used, and consequently worn, prepositions *about*, *of*, *on*: *re the railway question, I suggest that we take a strong line / in Vatbek there was a suppressed chapter concerning it (: incest) . . . Shelley wrote a play about it / Concerning Glasgow . . . much has been written*.

Examples with *about*, *of*, *on*: *Lamb wrote about himself / You are thinking about something, L. dear! / From some quarters we have received some comment about the growth of our reserves / ' . . . in the purely human temper, he can write of death, almost like Shakespeare.' So Walter Pater wrote of him / he brought into focus the world's comprehension of ancient literature with a luminous exactitude of which they have never dreamed / Mr L. once remarked of Jane Austen's characters: 'They are people in whose lives a slight fall of snow is an event' / / Many clever men and women actually paid good American money to hear me talk on odds and ends of subjects although they probably had views on them that were at least as sound as mine / A press handout on the exhibition gravely notes that in order to paint this picture, Mr L. 'made several journeys' to that famous beauty spot / The London Conference on Palestine.*

About carries an association of vagueness and varied range of

approach: *we had a long talk about his new theory* (compare *give a talk on a subject*) / *Until I owned a dog, I never knew what is meant by the proverb about letting a sleeping dog lie, or the fable about the dog in the manger*; *about* is here equivalent to 'dealing with', while *of* in the same connections would have almost the value of a definitive genitive; compare *no less than sixty books about travels in Switzerland* and *Em studied the little book of names and tickets* / *The story of the prophet Merlin and the enchantress Nimue has the same origin* / *A luckless traveller called Bruce, whose truthful stories about Abyssinia were doomed to be disbelieved.*

Of has no intellectual content, but has been reduced to the meagreness of a formal grammatical device; *of*-phrases are often easily comparable to a verb + object: *dream of* is the equivalent of *envisage*, while *dream about* = 'to have dreams concerning'; compare *He attached so much importance to victory in talk that he dreamed about it* and *He had not dared to dream of such bliss.* — *I've heard of it* = *I know . . .*, *I've heard about it* = 'I have heard talk of it'; e.g. *He had heard about the troubles while in the United States* / *We had heard of the fall of Wolsey, which was like the crash of a huge palace* (viz. 'We knew, and yet we did not realize that pride goes before a fall'). — *Can you think of a good name for this?* = 'suggest' / *he was thinking about youthful days in New Zealand* / *the students there had asked him what he thought of the poetry of T. S. Eliot . . .* 'I don't think about it at all!' / *I'm not sure of it* (: 'I don't know the fact') / *I'm not sure about it* (: 'I am not sure of facts regarding this point') / *ignorant of Latin* / *ignorant about aeroplanes.* — In all these cases it can be said that where *of* is used the complement is directly connected with (: the object of) the subject-matter of the member to which it is linked by the preposition, while there is in the use of *about* a conception of indirect attachment and a conception of multiplicity. — But the two prepositions may approach one another even more, for *about* is displacing *of**): *This may be a fair summary of what most people know about Horace Walpole* / *the exact story of Lord Hailes about the ass's milk, which Hervey took because he was a sick man, was that he confined himself to a diet of . . .* / *Most often he would talk not of France and the war at all, but of New York. He liked nothing better than to sit in a shell-hole with C. and K. and talk about New York* / *Patterson wrote of the British troops in 1862: 'For solidity, bottom and courage that never wavers, they are incomparable'* / *Walpole could . . .*

*) See Sverker Brorström: The Increasing Frequency of the Preposition *About* During the Modern English Period—Stockholm Studies in English IX.

write *about* the history of Richard III / very little is known *of* him biographically / To understand it properly, however, we have to know a little *about* the family of Hervey / General T. said at a press conference today that he had not heard *about* any more United Nations troops coming to Cyprus / you have no idea *of* how anxious we have been / Nor is there any clear idea *about* whether there ought to be continuous coverage—a sort of visual Hansard—or an edited version.

On: here the subject expressed by the complement is assumed to be familiar ground (and any statement to be factual and thorough): a paper *on* serfdom in Russia / experts *on* the teaching of English / authorities *on* gas / an essay *on* Arnold / conferences *on* Indo-China / a Commonwealth Declaration *on* Racial Equality are typical examples. The following examples show the sense of *on* as compared with *of* or *about*: Modesty is not innate in man, and its conventional nature is easily seen *from* a consideration of the different ideas held by different races *on* the subject / French aristocratic ideas *about* the honour of his ancient line // Taking the view *of* what is called the Victorian religious controversy . . . I cannot easily review a book which . . . / What are your views *on* Protection? // a report *on* equal employment opportunities / Report of last Thursday's steel debate, page 4.—In many phrases it is in fact the preposition that expresses the association of more or less authority, objectivity, etc.: a sermon *on* selfishness / the parson preached three Sundays running *on* the sin of beer-drinking / the parson would preach a sermon *about* it // the departmental organization would provide information *on* Canada / Can you give me any information *about* this matter? // Menzies seems to lack either the will or the ability to other opinions *on* affairs in which he takes a pride / those are my opinions *about* the affair.

Above, beyond, see beyond

Above, over

1 Indicating place: Examples: At noon, when the sun is right *above* the head, and the walls are casting no shadows, the children have an hour's recess / the minute hand of the electric clock *above* his bed jumped forward with an almost imperceptible click / the vision of the yellow cap flaming *above* the black beard // (air crash) a shrieking *over* her head / *over* the gateway there rose a turreted tower / there was a sign *over* the door.

Above = 'higher up than' expresses vertical distance, the horizontal relation being ignored; that is, it denotes both 'vertically above' and 'higher up and to one side of': *the loose coils of hair spread above the rounded sweep of cheek and chin / His Kingdom was 11,000 feet above the sea / Here and there warm isles of sand gleamed above the shallow tide.*

Over may connote 'covering contact': *a rug lying over a sofa*, and when the preposition is used of vertical distance, it carries an association of 'connection with, importance to, effect upon': *water standing over the road / over our heads hung heavy clouds / pieces of hair, like dirty snow, quite short, stuck out over her ears / a number of highly-polished sheep-crooks without stems that were hung ornamentally over the fireplace.* In some cases *above* and *over* are almost interchangeable: *a face bent over her* is the expected usage, since there is generally an association such as 'kindly', 'threateningly', etc.; but we also encounter: *she bent above her baby again / she saw the next wave towering higher and higher above her.*—*There was a sign above the door* merely indicates locality, while *there was a sign over the door* implies that it is there to mark the door.

2 Used figuratively: *the rank of ambassador is above that of minister / He soars above conventions / he was slightly above middle height / these arrangements are different when the guests are above 500 / a colonel is over a lieutenant / our neighbours argue about Balham and Ealing over our heads / he is considerably over 6 feet in height / key points can be reached by air from over seventy of Europe's airports.*

In ordinary figurative use (the first and fifth examples) we find the same implication as for locality; in the examples quoted *over* thus carries the association 'command', while *above* refers only to rank. In the second and sixth examples *over* contains the subordinate implication 'concerned with', while *above* merely denotes level.—As indications of measurement they both mean 'more than', but *above* indicates only level, while *over* implies an evaluation of the level (: 'whole', 'as much as'); i.e. the same difference as that between *not less than* and *no less than*.

Across, over

1 Position: *they found him lying dead across his mother's grave / across his back he carried a pretty little rifle / their neighbours across*

the Channel // we paused on the bridge over the river / they wore blue serge, with watch-chains over their waistcoats / a door opened over the way, and an elderly gentleman in a kind of fez appeared.

Across indicates direction, at right angles to the longitudinal direction of the complement. This is not present in *over*, which thus in the last example signifies 'on the other side of', 'beyond'. In the other examples *over* has a value corresponding to its central significance ('covering contact'; 'influencing, characterizing', etc.). In *the bridge across the river*, *across* merely indicates the respective directions of the two phenomena connected by the preposition; in *the bridge over the river* we have the implication 'bearing on' the complement; the phrase is more or less equivalent to 'the bridge spanning the river'.

2 Movement: *three figures were walking across the lawn towards the window / the Roman Road runs across mountain, marsh and river / he passed his hand across his forehead // he escorted the two ladies over the smooth lawn / he could not as yet have gone more than a few hundred yards over such uneven country / she hurried over the bridge with tears running down her cheeks.*

The difference is roughly as before: *across* denotes direction; the expressions using *over* are descriptive, they imply movement in progress. It may be noted that while *across* strictly speaking denotes a relation to the phenomenon denoted by the complement, the concept may be a little vaguer, the indication of direction belonging to another phenomenon than that stated in the complement. Thus in *the Germans had already crossed the outer lines, and were now streaming across the causeway which enclosed the Zuider Zee*, we should really expect *along* in connection with 'causeway', but *across* is related to 'the Zuider Zee'. Similarly, *They scattered across the grass* makes sense only when we know that the context indicates a football field.

A corresponding distinction exists in figurative use. *Over* is descriptive: *unrealistic discussions on these issues over the past few years* describe a process taking place throughout a number of years, but *The inability to communicate across the years is that there is too much to communicate* concerns 'the fact of the gulf between young and old'.

After, behind

Normally these prepositions do not approach each other in content, *behind* expressing direction and location: *there is a garden behind the*

house, and *after* expressing chronological order: *after* school. But they may approach one another when succession is expressed: *Fast into the perilous gulf of night walked Bosinney and fast after him walked George / put the direct object after the verb / shut the door after you when you leave the room // In her arms she carried C. Behind her staggered the ancient clerk with the three suitcases / I heard someone running behind me / I closed the door behind me.* The usual associations are of course also present, i.e. 'mutual local relation', where *behind* is used, and succession in the use of *after*. Of most interest is the type *close the door after / behind you*. If the person has not passed through the doorway, then obviously only *behind* can be used: *the door closed behind the postman*; but if he has, both the preposition expressing succession and that expressing relative locality can be used.—When expressions with *close* are used of what is irrevocably past, *behind* is used as the clearer figure: *the gates of childhood had for ever closed behind them.*

Time-span expressions may represent distance, e.g. (of a boat-race) *he finished 96 seconds behind the winner*. Of the two prepositions only *behind* carries an association of 'less progress': *he is behind his sister in arithmetic.*

After, see beyond

After, by

In the type *day—day, week—week, shot—shot, bus—bus* these prepositions may approximate each other in content. *After* expresses the whole sequence, while *by* directs the attention to the individual members of the sequence (compare *every day* and *each day*): *year after year they would be alone together / Year by year the initials carved on the trees deepen.*

After, following

Examples: *after 10 years in office, the Conservatives took stock of the nationalized industries in 1961 / Last week the government of newly-independent Sierra Leone withdrew the residence permit of Mr John Hatch, following an article which he contributed to this journal on*

8 June / *After* his marriage to Princess Elizabeth and *following* her accession to the throne as Queen Elizabeth II in 1952, Prince Philip's many interests and his sympathetic understanding of present-day problems were reflected in the speeches he made on public occasions.

From cases where *following* is used as a present participle linked with the subject of the sentence: *Following* Nazi precedents the Soviet newspapers first gave warnings of . . . , the way is open to prepositional use (compare the development of *owing to*) with the sense of *after* + the concept 'as a consequence of'; but the third example shows a further development, in which it is used solely of sequence, and only as an 'elegant variation'; this is fairly common in journalese. The latter type is generally disapproved of, the former disapproved of by some. (See among others E. Gowers: *The Complete Plain Words* p. 142, and V. H. Collins: *The Choice of Words* p. 118.)

After, for

In cases where *after* denotes 'follow after', as in *he went on and I panted after him*, the figurative use, as in *As the hart panteth after the water brooks, so panteth my soul after thee, O God* (Psalms XCII 1) / *What is he after?*, may lead to metaphorical use, so that the phrase no longer expresses 'seeking' but merely 'desiring'. *After* thus approaches (and is often replaced by) *for*: *pant for knowledge*. The following are examples of such approximation:

He bankers too yearningly after common human fulfilments / These virtues (viz. truth, honesty, etc.) *are not exactly the ones most sought after at a political convention / strive after success / yearn after one's absent friends / / she bankers for affection / unsought-for fame / strive for victory / yearn for home.*—They differ in that *after* contains an idea of distance from the complement, that is, that it is more difficult to attain; compare *banker after the pleasures of one's youth* and *banker for food when one is hungry*.

After, see next to & on

After, past

In statements of time, with denotations of the hour as complement, 'more than' is expressed by *past*: *half past two / twenty minutes past*

the hour / stay put till past 11 o'clock. In the U.S.A. *after* is a common usage here: *half after six.* *After* for *past* does occur in British English also: *the debate ended at seven minutes after noon last Thursday.*

After, see since

Against, see for

Against, from

Examples: *this will guard you against temptation / he defended Italy against the Goths / he is well protected against the weather // the policeman guarding the coal-tips from shivering midnight predators / raise a large army to defend the country from aggression / the measure introduced by Mr Marples to the Commons last week is an attempt to protect British shipowners from this form of American commercial aggression.*

In cases where defence is involved, *against* is used when the preposition can be said to link together designations for two (possibly fig.) active opponents. When *from* is used only the complement of the preposition is conceived of as active. Note that the verb *shield*, which is more or less synonymous with the verbs mentioned in the examples, corresponding to this distinction, is normally combined with *from*, since this verb is linked solely with the conception of inactive protection: *he shielded her from harm.* Other examples of this concept are: *branches to shade you from the sun / White students thought that they were safer from terrorists because they were white.*

Against, (up)on, to, toward(s)

Examples: *each ship, one against one, was expected to sail down upon her adversary / no ship could sail against the wind that moved her / no longer can the wealthy go splashing past in their private conveyances, driving the humble pedestrian against the wall // one line of ships was accustomed to await the onslaught, while the possessor of the weather gage sailed down upon it / It (: the Democratic Administration) has turned its back on the captive peoples of Eastern Europe / Immigration restric-*

tions *on* Japanese are much more severe than *on* Jews // Two of the poor devils . . . fell *to* the quarter deck and were killed / The British contingent, *to* its right, lay now beyond the Marne / Antonia . . . had by now turned her back *to* me // he dashed *toward* me / she turned *towards* me / . . . fine art, his attitude *towards* which . . . is one of half-diffident, half-contemptuous curiosity / I entertain no personal feelings *toward* you.

In the usages illustrated here these prepositions may be said to form a scale extending from 'hostility' to 'direction'. In most cases there may be said to be an approximation in content between two of those given in the series, and in the individual examples only two of the prepositions are as a rule possible; in a few phrases, however, any of them would be possible, thus *turn* + prep. + complement.

Against expresses hostility or contact. In the first sense we find in figurative use *against* alternating with *on* and (figuratively weakened) with *to*: a strong attack *against* the Government's policy / the attacks *on* religion of Froude, Clifford, and Bradlaugh // disbanding the foot-guards was a blow *against* serfdom / M. Defferre's withdrawal is an extremely serious blow *to* the opposition // the reaction *against* the accepted fashion began *on* the Continent / What was his reaction *to* your proposal? (where *reaction* signifies 'responsive feeling'). In the second sense ('contact') *against* may approximate in various ways to *to* and *on*: place the piano with its back *against* the wall indicates 'up against', while the corresponding expression with *to* indicates direction. The ship was dashed *against* the rocks / the rain was beating *against* the window // the ship drifted *on* the rocks / the rain beating *on* the cabbage leaves; here *against* indicates that the complement resists (stops, hinders) the activity in question, while the complement of *on* denotes the surface on which an activity acts.

(Up)*on*, in the examples given, expresses 'hostility directed against', and approximates either *against* or *to*, as in draw a knife *on* somebody, and the dog turned *on* me and bit me.

To, in the cases mentioned, denotes direction towards the complement + a connotation that it is reached. Approximation to *on* (beyond that mentioned above) may occur when the same phenomenon can be regarded as movement reaching its goal, and as (the resulting) state: he fell *to/on* the ground.—Obviously only *to* can be used in *turn to* the left/right; but both prepositions are possible in the type: the British contingent *to* its right lay now beyond the Marne / *On* the left was a tuft of trees sloping upwards into the dark / I knew he had a mole *on* the left of his navel, where *on* expresses proximity and *to* direction.

Toward(s) also denotes direction, but with the association that the complement is not reached: *from the crown down toward the nape of the neck*; compare *from top to toe*. The same distinction is found in figurative usage: *a maze of questions, instructions, and cross-references soon turns out to be a clear path towards self-revelation* / *He had inclinations towards art* / *her world-wide experience and charm have helped thousands of clients . . . towards the security of a happy marriage* / *he couldn't bend his mind to his studies* / *the child turned to its mother for comfort*. The difference is often slight: *he behaved very meanly to his children* / *you have behaved towards me with hostility*. But actual confusion, as in *she would prefer to have done some real wickedness towards Jane*, is rare.

Against, versus

Examples: *man against nature* / *one's reason against one's desires* // *the Rookes v. Barnard case* / *Lancashire v. Yorkshire* / *Painter v. Spring, in 1818, continued to the forty-second round* // *this is the old problem of preparedness versus disarmament* / *The complex agonies of society are often presented as a simple struggle of good versus evil* / *a class struggle, bosses v. the rest, is fading*.

In this type *against* indicates that the action derives from the preceding substantive and is directed against the complement of the preposition, while *versus* expresses a reciprocal concept; compare *the English fought the Scotch* and *the English and the Scotch fought*. *Versus* is used in connection with lawsuits and contests, and an underlying idea of this is evident in other uses.

Against, with

Normally these prepositions express opposing concepts: *we were rowing against/with the current*; but in combination with words such as *battle, compete, fight, struggle* they approach each other: *England fought with France against Germany* / *compete against* / *England fought with France against difficulties* / *They made war other countries in trade* / *struggle against* / *France helped James II* // *England fought against France, because France helped James II* // *England fought with Germany in the War of 1914-18* / *compete with* / *other countries* / *struggle with* / *somebody* / *So England went to war with Spain in 1739*.

Here *with* involves a reciprocal concept, while *against* expresses

only one aim in the action, viz. in the direction of the preposition's complement. Thus while *with* can be used in the type *run a race with somebody for a prize*, there can only be *a race against time*; similarly: *you must fight against temptation / the fight against disease / against stupidity the gods themselves battle in vain* (compare *they battled with the winds and waves*, where the winds and waves are to some extent personified).

Ahead of, see before

Along, alongside (of), down, up

Along can denote 'movement on', the complement being a substantive indicating a line or length: *move along the road / sail along the river / I have been looking back along the corridors of history / (they spread out along the grass makes sense only when it is known that the location is a football field).*—In this usage *along* approximates to *up* and *down*, which add the concepts of the two directions: *walk down/up the street // sail down/up the river // cars were rattling up and down the pier / at Windsor, the Queen glided down a passage 'drowned in tears'*. The two prepositions do not necessarily indicate level; *up* may denote 'over to', *down* 'away from' the more important part of what is denoted by the complement, or they may express 'over to' and 'away from' the speaker: *Brooks advanced up the laboratory* (viz. from the entrance) / *a fat heavy man passed down the laboratory* (viz. on his way out).—*Down* and *up* may also pass into denoting position; they then express distance: *Oxford is farther down the river / I asked the landlord of an inn up the river / The Devonshire cream which my wife buys at a small shop down the road is eaten with raw fruit salad.*

Along may in addition express the concept of parallel lines (of movement or position): *walk along a wall / sail along the shore / a row of houses along the river*. This value is also expressed by *alongside* (in the U.S.A. also *alongside of*) with the secondary value 'near': *the tug drew up alongside the freighter / a car parked alongside of the curb*. The same reality is expressed by the two prepositions in *The Lords spread themselves luxuriously along the river / the turreted parliamentary buildings alongside the Thames.*

Alongside (of), see beside(s)

Amid, amidst, in the centre of, in the middle of, in the midst of

Examples: *Dazzled and delighted, riding, dancing, singing, laughing, amid the splendours of Windsor, he was aware of a new sensation—the stirrings of ambition in his breast / the Coronation is over. A new King and Queen are seated upon their thrones amid the acclamations of the British people / amid such a world, if anywhere, our ideals henceforth must find a home // amidst the panic around him he remained cool / amidst the splendour and festivities of the court she felt a pang / he completed the feat amidst cheers // he was standing in the middle of the road / Why should 630 otherwise rational men and women feel obliged to conduct the nation's business in the middle of the night? / Can you imagine a man leaving for a train in the middle of an innings? // the home and foreign editors sit, each like a spider in the midst of his web, with the filaments stretching out, in the one case to all parts of the country, in the other to the limits of the oversea world / the worthy delegates of the tallow-chandlers, or the Society for the Abolition of Capital Punishment, were distressed and mortified when, in the midst of their speeches, the Prime Minister became absorbed in blowing a feather, or suddenly cracked an unseemly joke / this was the library of some missionary whom death had claimed in the midst of his labours.*

In the centre of denotes 'exactly in the middle of: a table in the centre of the stage; it is found used more vaguely in the sense *in the middle of*, as in *the little pink house with the snow roof . . . half melted away in the centre of the table* (Gowers disapproves of this in Fowler's *Mod. Eng. Usage*, 2nd ed.).

In the middle of signifies purely place or time, namely 'at an approximately equal distance from the sides of', as in *Horace Walpole . . . would sit in the middle of the room at French inns* (viz. to avoid the fleas in the panelling); and 'at an approximately equal distance from the beginning and end of', as in *in the middle of the month*.—In addition it is used figuratively, in the sense 'busily engaged with', 'in contact with': *the intense satisfaction . . . to feel himself once more in the middle of things*.

In the midst of denotes the situation, the relation (often contrast, threat, or the like) between the thing and its surroundings, as in a *small boat in the midst of raging waves*; the figurative element is

perceptible. The difference between *in the middle of* and *in the midst of* is clear in an example such as *The churches . . . are gathered into a silence of their own in the very midst of the town, so that one passes them by without observing them*; i.e. not the place ('where in the town'), as would be expressed by *in the middle*, but the contrast between the silence of the churches and the noise of the town. — Note the phrase *in our (your, their) midst* = *among us*, etc.: *Even though he now lives in West Germany, the murderers in our midst is still his major pre-occupation.*

Amid(st): here the figurative element has disappeared, and the preposition denotes only situation (contrast). Of the two forms, *amid* is the commoner in the U.S.A., *amidst* perhaps in Britain. The preposition is literary (for *in*, or something of the kind). It generally has a singular substantive as its complement. If the complement is plural, the concept of discrete phenomena has receded into the background, and they are regarded as a mass. If the concept of single phenomena is recognizable in the complement, *among(st)* will be the preposition used. For example: *It (i.e. Great Britain) also offers the distinctive lands and peoples of its different regions—the Welsh speaking their own ancient language amid their mountains and valleys . . . the French-speaking Channel Islanders, and among them all the English.* — See further below.

Amid(st), among(st)

For examples of *amid(st)* see above.

Examples of *among(st)*: *then we have on our left hand a downland cliff or quarry, on our right hand a valley rich in trees. One tall red house stands up among them / I saw him among the crowd / they found time for play among the white sand by the bright water / we . . . passed through the grave-yard of the little Coton church, with its grey tower rising among the trees and its moss-grown headstones sleeping among the grass / / red brick houses with poplars coming up amongst them / to live amongst those with whom one has not anything in common / there was a definite undercurrent of dissatisfaction amongst nearly everyone I knew during my last year.*

The *-st*-form is disappearing, says Partridge in *Usage and Abusage*. At all events, *among* can always be substituted for *amongst*, while the opposite is not the case. Fowler, in *Mod. Eng. Usage*, says that the desire for euphony plays a part, so that *among* is followed by a con-

sonant and *amongst* by a vowel; this seems to be a determining factor: *Culture I define as being, amongst other things, a capacity for subtle discrimination of words and ideas.* There seem, however, to be semantic considerations as well; a plurality (or a phenomenon with non-countable association) among a plurality shows proportionally more instances with *-st*. With regard to *amid(st)* as against *among(st)*, some insist on their taking a singular and plural complement respectively (thus Collins: *The Choice of Words 5: among the guests*, but not *among the crowd*). Actual usage is more apt to consider the content; thus a singular form implying a plurality counts as a plural; in the examples given *among* is quite commonly found with *crowd*, less commonly with *grass* (= 'tufts of grass'), not commonly with *sand* (= 'stretches of sand') and *everyone* (= 'all').

Among, between

Examples: *The Labour Party conference has ended at Blackpool; our Labour Correspondent, John Cole, reports that delegates achieved a greater understanding among themselves than seemed possible at the beginning of the week / . . . the ultimate objectives of the Rome Treaty. — These include free trade between the members; . . . the Bonn declaration . . . calling for co-operation among members in order to progress towards 'political union' / the house was shaped like a T . . . The top-stroke . . . was divided separately among two old ladies, one's portion lying above the other's (Laurie Lee: *Cider with Rosie*, Penguin ed. p. 78) // In an open glade between the trees the foxgloves were coming into flower / social justice and peace between nations / Between them, the three have pretty well killed us / He climbed steadily up and up the high broad between the dense, damp jungle that grew at the base and up the steep rise of the tor-face.*

Used of locality, *between* denotes the relation 'placed between two', which may shade into a reciprocal and/or figurative value: *the house stands between the river and the wood / a look passed between them / there was great love between them.* This does not mean that the complement necessarily denotes two individual phenomena, but merely that a plurality (or a mass) is distributed in two groups: *a cuff over the head that sent the big hat flying between the trees / there are signposts pointing between the trees; compare a valley rich in trees. One tall red house stands up among them / he was carried out to the clearing among the trees; viz. 'trees on both sides' in the former*

type as against 'surrounded by trees' in the latter. In a sentence such as: *Below, among mighty trees of golden leaf, and some that lie prone, there is a track*, the landscape surrounding the track is expressed, but not the landscape as seen from the track.

With a group (of persons) as complement *between* indicates that the whole group is involved: *There is constant hot water, true only two taps between 140 men or more / he collected about him one and twenty similar outcasts, and proposed that they should start a club between themselves / the choice lies between the six candidates / Staff conversations between the three countries.*—In connections of this type *among* connotes that the statement applies to some, but not necessarily all within the group: *you may settle the matter among yourselves / there was not five pounds among them.* Thus either preposition may often occur according to whether the application is general, or the situation applies (to some) within the group: *they had not five pounds between/among them.* Naturally we find: *the money was divided equally between the crew.* Note also that in the second example given at the beginning *between the members* implies 'all', and *among members* 'some'.—Yet another factor is involved; in expressing division *among* is used to express the dividing of a whole: *the money was divided among the heirs / he left some money to be divided among the servants*; this may well be the factor behind the unusual use of *among* in the third of the examples listed.

Amongst, see *amid(st)*

Around, see *about*

As, *for*

While *as* expresses the identity of the complement with the member with which it connects it, *for* denotes 'serving as', sometimes with a subordinate sense of intention. While the complement after *as* is given as naturally acting in the capacity in question, the complement after *for* is often striking: *a large nuclear power plant at Fairport . . . It will use natural uranium as fuel and heavy water for the fission process / a shoe polish which has for long used the lion as its emblem / Sir Geoffrey . . . will have as one of his 51 opponents for the candidature Mr Frank*

Beswick, former M.P. for Uxbridge // W. had picked up a prominent man for a father . . . it was counted to him for righteousness! / Young noblemen in revolt against established decency without the backing of scholarship for a foundation / When the young Pitt attended the University Church, Paley suggested for a text in the sermon: There is a lad here who hath five barley loaves and two small fishes . . . / perhaps for relief from these altitudes, he was a lap-dog who amused himself with tattle / he had brought with him for a bodyguard eight hundred men.

As concerns, see about

As for, as to, etc.

As may precede a number of prepositions, and gives the preposition a vaguer (often figurative) value: *the power of the barons as against that of the King* (where the compound preposition expresses comparison, not resistance) / *As for how to make the policy fair, as between wage-earners and salary-earners and as between both of these classes and those who live by profits, the council has obviously come to no conclusion / much of the communiqué bears the mark of having been drafted by Mr Nehru and expresses his well-known ideas as upon Algeria.*

The combination *as from* is legal terminology, used before a date in the past: *these allowances will be payable as from the 1st January last*; it is considered incorrect if the complement is a date in the future: *these allowances will cease to be payable as from the 1st July next.*

As for and *as to* may replace *about*, *concerning*, *with reference to*, and so on.

As for + complement introduces a sentence and is extra-positional: note the comma separating the prepositional phrase from the rest of the sentence. This compound preposition implies that the complement denotes a new theme, and the succeeding statement usually involves dissociation or disapproval: *As for their women, the beauties who were the contemporaries of Walpole lived through romances of such intricacy and splendour that Hollywood in delirium would scarcely do them justice / As for what I have heard, it is not for me to ask him questions / as for the shop window—it's twice the size it was when I was a young'un.*

As to + complement may follow a predication and be connected

with it: *The best possible estimate will be made at the conference as to the total number of houses which can be completed in each district during this year / they could not agree as to whom they should elect / one can only guess as to how he knew.* This usage is disapproved of as being a vague form of expression replacing prepositions such as *about*, *of*, *on*. But extra-positionally, both before and after the sentence proper, *as to* is considered correct: *As to your liability for previous years, I will go into this and write further to you / As to the horned cattle, Mortimer's warning was scarcely needed // The Hall was to be inhabited in a fitting style, both as to house and stable.* When this phrase introduces the statement extra-positionally, it approximates closely expressions with *as for*; both draw attention to the theme to be dealt with in the succeeding statement. But while the statement after the *as for* phrase expresses reservation or the like, the statement after *as to* + complement expresses neutral interest in what is denoted by the complement, and the subject in question is taken to be, as it were, already present in the context: *As to my brother, I am surprised at their conduct towards him / As to their assistance, there is nothing he dreads more than their offer of it.*

As regards, see about

At, by

Of position: *the old woman at the window with her knitting / as he came in the woman rose from her place at the table / the trying scene at the piano had awakened a kindly solicitude // she was kneeling by the window / he sat proud and erect by the writing-table, reading / by and by she came over and sat by the piano.*

In these cases both prepositions express proximity, but *at* in addition contains a concept of 'connection with', 'interest in', 'use of', the complement; *he stood by the door* merely indicates 'where in the room'; compare with this *she stayed at the door, as if afraid to enter.* How slight the difference may be is perhaps best seen in such cases as *the honeymoon may take place at a hotel by, or in a holiday camp at, the seaside / The ass had stopped and was eating grass at the side of the road / The door of the coach was pushed open, revealing to those by the roadside a glimpse of the sumptuous interior.*

Of movement through an aperture: *the visitor came out at the*

shop-door / soon after sunrise he went out at the gate at which he had so lately entered / in at one ear and out at the other // the thief entered by the window / he escaped by the side door / when the Queen's Ministers came in at one door, the Baroness went out by another. The final example might tempt one to postulate a distinction between movement in and movement out as the determining factor in the choice between *at* and *by*, but a glance at the other examples will show that this is impossible. *At* here has a distinctive localizing value (viz. the aperture in question as distinct from others), while *by* has an association of the means or medium.

The same distinction is to be seen figuratively in *at/by night*; the former merely indicates the time, namely 'at nightfall', or 'during the night': *at night he said his prayers / a burglar is a person who breaks into a house at night in order to steal*; but *by night* signifies 'under cover of darkness', 'aided by the dark': *he broke into the house by night / the core of blue persists, and so it is by night. Then the stars hang like lamps . . .*

With complements denoting points of time the difference is more marked: *at* denotes 'at the stated moment', *by* 'before the time stated': *At the end of this period . . . there were 10,478 benefices / he came back at sunset // By the end of his life, what with hot rooms and cherry brandy, he was too fat and too ashamed of his stomach to go out / by midwinter they came back to their ships / I want the book back by the end of next week.* Thus the two prepositions cannot be said really to approach one another in content: *You must be back at/by five o'clock* are two entirely distinct expressions.

Adjectives denoting a state of mind are often linked by *at* with a substantive expressing the source or object of the mood: *I felt, still, hurt and cross rather than seriously anxious at Georgie's behaviour / angry at being kept waiting / impatient at the delay.* Adjectival past participle forms with a similar content are likewise followed by *at*: *delighted at the idea of going to England / Mr Tillotson was a little piqued at being found so absurdly in the wrong / She was surprised herself at the strong, bright, throbbing sensation beneath her breast*; but here vacillation between *at* and *by* is possible, since the complement of the preposition may denote either what the mood is directed at, or the agent of the verbal concept behind the past participle form: *Milly was tentatively, warily pleased at the diversion for her friend / No wonder they disapproved of penniless demagogues like Wesley and were pleased by a church bell, cast during the eighteenth century in defiance of that preacher // I hope you won't be shocked at his coarse stories / probably*

even Queensberry would have been deeply shocked by the opinions of a modern biologist.

At, for

When used of price these may approach each other. Properly speaking, *at* signifies a point on a scale, and thus expresses a level: *he bought the book at half its real value / three yards of cloth at 12s. a yard / four-roomed flats at £550 a year*, while *for* expresses exchange: *I'll give you this horse for your gun / he paid a pound for the book / 7 apples for one shilling*. But the two attitudes may approach each other to some extent in connection with statements of price: *he would not sell the horse for twenty pounds / he sold the book for a pound*; so that in *he sold the house at a good price*, *for* may be found instead of the correct *at*, *price* being regarded as the equivalent of *sum*.

At, in

Of position.—In the case of the names of towns the choice of preposition varies, as in *There were 'seasons' at Bath or at Tunbridge Wells or in London*. This type has led to the slightly incorrect statement that the choice of preposition depends upon the size of the town (thus as recently as Collins: *The Choice of Words* p. 156). But another formulation, which covers the usage with other place-names also, is to be preferred.—Examples: *seventeen private storage yards at London, Bristol, Bath . . . / there would be less chance of losing the luggage if L. were to tie on new labels at Paris, where she would have to re-register / Born at Chelsea in 1864, he went to Western Australia in 1887 to practise as an architect / Her Prime Minister . . . appeared on the balcony of Buckingham Palace with his wife and the King and Queen. At Downing Street they heard him claim that ' . . . I believe it is peace for our time' . / During this afternoon's meeting it was decided that the Foreign Ministers of the Six would meet in Brussels on November 6 / Last night I slept and dreamed a dream. I thought I was once more in Cambridge / The Queen's third child and second son was born in Buckingham Palace at 3.30 p.m. last Friday.*

The two prepositions express respectively the place regarded as a point, with a distinctive association, 'address'; and the place regarded as an area, with an association of its appearance. Thus the names of

towns and places known to the speaker are more apt to be preceded by *in*, and only a global point of view would make an Englishman use *at* of London. This distinction means that *at* is often used when the place is first mentioned to the reader, and *in* after this, since the distinctive concept is then no longer present: *The news from India continues to be very gloomy. The plague spreads at Bombay.*—It would be just as well to describe the horrors of the plague *in* Bombay / *Labour demonstration at Bristol.*—One of the largest Labour demonstrations ever held *in* Bristol took place on Saturday / *At St Petersburg I went to an English lodging-house . . . I could not imagine how a saddle of English mutton could find itself at a dinner in St Petersburg / When I was an undergraduate at Cambridge, the Master of a college was a fabulous being . . . When I last stayed in Cambridge, I lunched with two Masters of colleges.*

At is used for addresses: *he lives at 141 Wood Street / the Commonwealth conference at Marlborough House / But the atmosphere at Westminster and in Whitehall is quite different.* The explanation of *The Conference Office will be in 39 George Square, on the first floor* is that the organizers are visualizing the interior of the house.

In the case of substantives denoting place and having in addition associations of function or activity, these two aspects of the complement's concept are attached respectively to phrases with *at* and *in*: *I advised him to apply to the professors of short-story writing at some reputable university / Since P. was at the school every morning, L. could have the undisturbed use of the studio / a black coat and a high hat were necessary to appear at church in / she occupies a unique place in this university, for she was the first woman ever enrolled among its honorary graduates / he has spent four years in a builder's office / she has been something in a canteen / I should like to hear them lift up their voices in church.*

Applied to *page*, the same distinction is found between *at*, used distinctively of a point: *we stopped at page 40*, and *in* connoting the contents of the page: *a description was given in these pages last week*; compare *on* sub. *at/on*.

Used figuratively, *inter alia* of time, a corresponding distinction is found between *at*, indicating a point of time, and *in* indicating a period of time and accompanying circumstances: *flight at this eleventh hour would be criminal / this remarkable man who, after the loss of a leg at the Battle of Waterloo, was known as 'One Leg' Paget / she is at the end of her patience / he had been employed as a bodyguard*

at the coronation of Florizel // something strange happened in that instant / four people were killed and a large number injured in an explosion in Broadgate, Coventry, on Friday / In the end he wrote pathetically . . . My buildings are paper, like my writings / some starved fragment of ancient hedge is usually taken advantage of in the erection of these forlorn dwellings.

At may follow substantives, adjectives and verbs, and indicate that the concept of attitude or skill inherent in these is directed towards the complement: *she'd talk at us for years and years*. In this usage *at* may approach various other prepositions; in the example just given, *talk to* would equal a transitive verb, e.g. *address*, while *at* in the same sentence merely indicates the direction of the action. *Indignant at something* is the more exact expression; *Greville was indignant about this* is vaguer. Adjectival past participle forms can vary between *at* and *by* as a link: *the French are not concerned at American policy and at what they take to be the gradual raising of the nuclear threshold in Western Europe / The Revolutionary Council is deeply concerned by rumours* (see *at*, *by*).—This value of *at* may appear to approach the use of *in* mentioned above: *he was an expert in* (compare *at*) *treating syphilis / he is particularly good in* (compare *at*) *tracing the voyages, analysing the battles on land and sea, and estimating the difficulties encountered*, where *at* would express the direction of the skill in question, and *in* the area within which it displays itself.

At, on

Indicating locality: *the boxes where you could see and hear what was happening at the other side of the world / there would be an outburst of loud angry cawings at one point, as unmistakable in its meaning as that sudden storm of indignation and protest frequently heard in one part of our House of Commons when the susceptibilities of the party or group of persons sitting together at that spot have been wantonly hurt by the honourable member addressing the House. It would subside only to break out by and by at some other spot / we stopped at page 40 // the post office is on the other side of the street / let's leave the decision to the man on the spot / Other law cases are reported on page 23*.—Here *at* is distinctive, signifying a point, while *on* is used when the complement denotes an expanse.

Figuratively, the distinctive value is correspondingly to be seen in *consultation at the highest level / the spread of education has led to an*

increased demand for English *at* a primary level, compare the narrative can be read *on* so many different levels // It was *at* this point, however, that the mind of this particular Canon of St Paul's performed its usual volteface (i.e. 'at this point in the course of events') / I cannot recommend her to give way *on* this point (i.e. point signifies 'sphere', 'subject').

The value of 'point' attached to *at*, as against that of 'expanse', 'extent' attached to *on*, which latter used figuratively leads to associations such as duration and/or accompanying circumstances, is to be seen in cases such as: *he would stay a few days at the farm / he works on the farm* // *I looked at her hand / It was a new and fierce pain to look on all this* (: 'the well-loved room, pictures, rugs . . .').—*Work at* simply expresses the direction of the activity: *he is working at a new invention / Alban worked at Chinese*; *work on* includes duration: *he is working on a poem / she was darning on a sock*.

In *knock at* the complement has little content: *I heard a knock at the front door* is thus more or less equivalent to 'someone knocked', as against *I knocked on the drawing-room door and looked inside / someone is knocking on the window*.

With substantives denoting occasion (point of time + action) there may be a close approach between the two prepositions; only *at* is possible in *Nelson was thirty-nine at Walpole's death / he had ensured the return, at the next election, of Lord M.'s brother*; but both are possible in *at his death the duchies were to fall to Prince Christian of Augustenburg / the heritage which she received at her coronation* // *on his arrival New Zealand was bankrupt* / (caption) *The scene at Victoria on the departure of M. and Mme Lebrun at the conclusion of their state visit. The President is kissing the Queen's hand*. Here *at* expresses only the time, but *on* may have an association of 'basis', i.e. 'following upon', and possibly also 'as a consequence of', as in *upon the death of her father, the young girl had become her own mistress / a sum payable on the occurrence of a certain event / they* (: justifications for a man's position) *vanished on analysis* // *On the death of the said George Augustus Selwyn's elder brother, the young man was left heir to the family property, and, at his father's death, became proprietor of the customary sinecures*.

At, to

These may approach each other when used with the perfect and pluperfect of *be*: *I have been at York for two days / Have you ever been*

to Rome? // they had been at/to church, the *at*-phrase expressing merely presence on the spot, while *to*-phrases also cover the journey there and back and generally imply that the person is no longer there: *he told her of the lecture he had been to / To have been to certain spots on the earth's surface is socially correct / Fox asked him if he had been to the execution*. Compare *When he was not at a hanging, his friends took care to send him a description*.—This, however, is not the essential implication of the *to*-phrase, which lies in the resultative concept: *the old man felt a flutter of strange excitement: not for years had he been to Lord's* (i.e. where now he was once more).

With a number of substantives *to* is found with a resultative value of this kind: *Smuts had impressed himself on world history . . . as a delegate to the Peace Conference . . . / A visit to Liverpool . . . impressed upon his mind the immensity of modern industrial forces*. Here *at* without an association of preceding movement is also a possibility, but rarer: *the King himself paid a visit at Kensington Palace in their absence*.

(At the) back of, see behind

At the side of, see beside

Bar(ring), see except

Before, ahead of, in front of

Examples: *she stared ahead of her / he was a quick walker and soon got ahead of the others / standard time in Turkey is two hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time // before us extended a sea of green forest / she fell to her knees before me and kissed my hand / I felt lame and foolish before her // he paused in front of me, looking down with a tender concentration / the Major laughs and makes jokes about it in front of me at parties / with a day like that in front of him*.

In the case of position (figuratively or otherwise), there is some approach between these. *Ahead of* denotes direction (in front) +

distance from the complement. *Before* and *in front of* express direction, but *before* has in addition an association of influence upon, significance for, the complement; it is the only one of them that can be used where contact is in question. *A. was holding her handkerchief before her face. She took another deep breath and uttered a long sob.* The difference between *before* and *in front of* is probably best illustrated by uniform examples such as *there are some trees in front of the house*, where position only is expressed, while *a tree stands before the door of the house* will have associations such as 'and shades it', 'makes approach difficult', or the like.

• *Before, see by*

Before, ere, previous to, prior to

Of these, *ere* is archaic: *ere long / gods have dwelt in woods ere now.*—*Previous to* is a favourite expression in commercial English: *previous to that date.*—The special content of *prior to* may be 'of greater importance than and therefore preceding': *this obligation is prior to the one just mentioned*; but it is often merely a mannered alternative to *before*, denoting simply chronological order: *nothing very honest or clear could have been settled between us prior to it / the two nights prior to my departure / prior to that time such contrasts as those of 'feel' and 'veal' or 'ice' and 'eyes' could not have occurred in English*, and *before* is here the usual and natural expression: *in the days before man's fall.*

Before, till, until

In general the distance in content between *before* and *till, until* is great: *he lived here before his father's death / he lived here till his father's death*; the former denotes that this was the state of affairs throughout a certain period preceding the point of time stated in the complement; the latter denotes that the state of affairs changes at the time given in the complement. A negative statement such as: *I had asked for gas masks, and was told that I could expect none before 1939* thus denotes that gas masks could not be expected within the period stated, while *till* in the same context would imply that they

could be expected in 1939. In many cases either view might equally well be expressed: *New efforts to open the safe cannot be made **before** Monday / This situation is unlikely to change **until** 1966 when the first of the VC-10s goes into service.*

Behind, see after

Behind, (at the) back of

In addition to the proper meaning of *at the back of*, where *the back* denotes the rearmost part of *of*'s complement: *you gaze down the long gallery towards the tombs of Nelson and Wellington and far beyond, **at the back of** the crypt, the black majesty of Wellington's funeral bier*, the expression may have the value 'close behind': *there is a garden **at the back of** the house*. It here approaches *behind*, which however is neutral as regards greater or less distance; compare *Her slateblue skirts were kilted boldly about her waist and dovetailed **behind** her and the mystery of the bush seems to recede from you as you advance, and then it is **behind** you if you look round*. Like *behind*, *at the back of* can also be used figuratively of a hidden cause: *he was often **at the back of** Ma's oddness*.—The abbreviated form *back of* is common in the U.S.A., but dialectal in British English: *I s'll have peas along the side o' the wood . . . and perhaps **back of** the well*.

Below, beneath, under, underneath

Examples: *the barometer stood **below** 29 / the bird is looking in all directions **below** her for any enemy / He was rather **below** middle height // Nothing is **beneath** the notice of a business man / we left the earth as a distant blue **beneath** us / a human face, very white **beneath** an arch of raven black hair // she did not look the worse **under** the chandeliers in the ball-room / "children **under** twelve years of age / we won't sell **under** 3s. per lb. // He was wearing a dark silk dressing-gown and as was again apparent was naked **underneath** it / the teams were running down the sloping alley-way **underneath** the grandstand / **underneath** his ingratiating manner, one felt a sinister intention.*

The most distinct of these prepositions is *underneath*, which has

an association (sometimes figurative) of 'covered' or 'concealed': *There are mines underneath the town.* Without this association, and used within the conceptual field where *below* and *under* meet, it is not frequent: *The names inscribed on the small brass tablet beside the bell on the street door were Skeat and Wylie . . . The bell underneath theirs was labelled: Mr Douglas Jefferson.*

Below and *under* correspond to respectively *above* and *over*; that is, *below* denotes level, 'further down than', *under* denotes 'down under', 'affected by', 'covered by', etc.: *The whole visible landscape is below, but only a small portion of it is under, an observer in a balloon* (Webster) / *they were seen under the tree* (i.e. 'sheltered under' or the like) as against . . . *below the tree*, which would mean 'further down the hill', cf. *Fermain Bay, pleasant cove below wooded cliffs* // *parts of Holland are below sea level*, cf. *the fields are under water after the heavy rain.*

Used figuratively they may sometimes seem to approach each other more closely: *a captain is below a general in rank*, while *under a general* denotes 'subordinate to'. In expressions of measurement *below* directs attention to the dividing line, the figure, so that it often signifies 'just below', while *under* denotes 'everything below': *incomes under £160*, i.e. small incomes; *incomes below £160* would be the form of expression used, for instance, in the case of a dividing line with regard to tax. *With two young persons under thirty, moments of depression were rare* (i.e. since it included two young people it was a lively company) / *Any applicants below 30?*—In figurative use, *under* is gaining ground from *below*: *He was under six feet tall* / *'He does look delicate,' said Ella under her breath.*

Beneath has the special meaning 'of poorer quality than', 'below one's dignity': *It is beneath you to complain* / *marry beneath one.* But in addition *beneath* replaces both *below* and *under* in literary English: *his hand upon her side so close beneath her breast* / *the polished surface beneath which the light of the candles seemed to burn again* / *let us rest ourselves here beneath these birch trees* / *a look of such intense bitterness that the fish seemed to sizzle beneath it* / *The Sultan's domains have never rested easily beneath his or anyone else's rule.*

Below, beyond, see beyond

*Beneath, see below**Beside, at the side of, by the side of*

Used of locality, *beside* signifies proximity, while *at/by the side of* expresses proximity + direction (cf. *before* as against *in front of*): *he snatched the revolver lying beside the bed* / *Beside the chestnut mare, he looked like something that ought to have been carting manure on a second-rate holding* / *The Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh beside the Wall during their tour of West Berlin* as against *he paused by the side of the bed* / 'These partings are no good, you know,' *her husband was saying at her side*.—Of the two compound prepositions *at/by the side of* (*at/by . . . side*), the *by*-phrase, in addition to the association of proximity + direction, may express a connection with the complement: *a side-car is a small one-wheeled car fastened at the side of a motor-cycle* / (U.S.) *a side-walk is a path at the side of a street* / *B. walked at his side, not at hers* // *she looks small by the side of her companion* / *come and sit by my side* / *she passed some hours by his side*.

Only *beside* is used metaphorically: *he was beside himself with fear* / *this is beside the question*.

Beside and *by the side of* are used with the connotation 'compared with', the latter having a clear figurative value, while *beside* is reduced to merely expressing comparison: *clothes are of no consequence beside health* / *my work is poor beside yours* // *By the side of that stolid boy she looked like an exquisite bit of Venetian glass*.

*Beside, see next to**Beside, besides, alongside (of)*

We now distinguish between *beside*, of place, equivalent to 'by the side of': *I saw the doctor on one knee beside the body*, and *besides*, of amount or number, equivalent to 'as well as', 'in addition to': *I have no adviser besides you* / *have you any money besides this?*; the older use of *beside* to signify 'as well as' may however still be encountered: *Beside the two runic letters, the Old English alphabet*

included a new letter formed by putting a stroke through *d* / the gallows which held out its arms for many crimes, *beside* the one of murder.

Alongside, which, as chiefly used, expresses 'along' + 'close to', may occur with the first-mentioned value weakened, thus approaching *beside* (or *by the side of*): a miner had left the pits to carry home the body of his mate who had been killed *alongside* him.—In the U.S.A., where this preposition alternates with *alongside of*, a transition to metaphorical use is found, and thus an approach to *besides*: In 1485 they (: the statutes) begin to appear in English *alongside of* French / they (: strong verbs) . . . had developed weak forms *alongside* the strong.

Besides, see *beyond*

Between, see *among*

Betwixt, *between*

Betwixt is archaic for *between*, and can like the latter be used of more than two (cf. *between*): Let there be no misunderstanding *betwixt us*.

Beyond, *above*, *below*

In certain topographical statements *beyond* may approach either of the other two, namely when the locality is regarded from a point respectively below and above the point of locality appearing in the complement: they passed the Euphrates just *above* the city of Babylon gives no information about the speaker's position; but if he was further down the river than Babylon *beyond* could have been used instead. In place descriptions where 'considerable distance' is often *above* and *below*, an association of *beyond* can be an alternative to *above* and *below*, an association of 'considerable distance' is often attached to *beyond*: There is a waterfall *beyond* the bridge is distinguished by this association from there is a waterfall *above* the bridge, or there is a waterfall *below* the bridge. The association appears more clearly in certain figurative uses: this book is *beyond* him as against this book is *above* him, where the former signifies

'far too difficult'. *He is above his brother in Latin* merely indicates their respective attainments, while *beyond* in the same context would indicate that the difference in knowledge is great. Further examples: *there is nothing in this shop above fifty cents / he acquired the ring for an amount beyond its value / his conduct has always been above suspicion / (Nigeria) a politically neutral language beyond the reproaches of tribalism.*

Beyond, after

Applied to time, these can be used in identical contexts, *beyond* with the association mentioned above; in this connection it means that the time stated is regarded as late: *don't stay out beyond your time.* According to the situation we may thus find: *don't stay out after/beyond 10 o'clock.*

Beyond, besides, (over and above)

Applied to value, amount and number, these may approach one another, but *beyond* has the association mentioned above. Thus while *besides* may have a complement of any size: *other bats besides this, beyond* has the association of a considerable amount or number: *he had to pay something beyond the £80 / beyond his labours as a preacher he composed 26 books / 'Teenage culture' sometimes has a life of its own beyond the commercially proffered emotions.*

Over and above was originally an emphatic expression with an association of 'more than could be expected', or 'more than normal'; it is now worn, and approaches *besides* in content: *the quality which gives to his work, over and above its pure beauty, its own peculiar character / the waiters get good tips over and above their wages.*

Beyond, on the other side of

Beyond includes the association of great distance: *beyond the wall/ the river.*

Beyond, past

These approach each other in expressions of movement; *past* denotes 'without encountering' + 'further than', *beyond* denotes 'further than' + its special association of great distance: *he walked beyond/past the gate // go beyond the last house / her eyes were constantly straying past him to the open window*; similarly in figurative use: *she danced at the Welwyn assembly, a free woman, when past eighty / an old man past work sat at a rough deal table / the pain was almost past bearing / Where we find common beliefs, common images, and common terms underlying an apparently major controversy, it is necessary to look past the controversy to the substantial history // he is beyond medical aid / your work is beyond all praise.*

But, see except

By, see after & at

By, before

In the *at/by* section a value of *by* is mentioned: *By the seventeenth of January there 'had been sacked and burned: the churches of Saint Sophia and Saint Irene . . .* This *by* may approach *before* to some extent: *you must come and see me before Christmas*. They differ in that *by* comprises the point of time stated in the complement (i.e. signifies 'up to and including'), while *before* does not: *can you finish the work by tomorrow?* is therefore not the same as . . . *before tomorrow?* Furthermore, *by* phrases presuppose that the complement marks the end of a development: *By the 6th the situation had passed out of hand / (Of the lessening prestige of men of letters) By 1780, Johnson himself, when flattered by Lord Newhaven, was bowing his head almost as low as the table, to a complimenting nobleman / sun and breeze will have a tan on your face by the second day.*

By, see from

By, in, on

One of the meanings of *by* is the concept 'means', 'method': *travel by bus/train*, etc. As a number of these complements can often be regarded as place concepts—enclosed space, expanse, etc.: *I had lunch on the train / there are restaurant cars on this train / It's cold in trains*—*by* may in many situations show some approach to *in/on*: *V. left in the evening train for Dublin*.—With *live* the prepositional complement may be regarded sometimes as a basis, thus *on*: *He had the appetite of one who has lived on greens and potatoes for ten years / live on £500 a year*, sometimes as an activity that forms a means: *live by being a writer / live by one's pen*; but the boundary between the two concepts may be somewhat blurred: *live on or by one's wits / It isn't scenery one lives by / one cannot live by thrills / a country does not live by tourists*.

With gerund forms as complement *by* expresses means, *in* simultaneity, and *on* a concept such as 'immediately after' + possibly 'on the basis of': *other Churches would benefit by having men as clear-thinking as Mr G.M. / His popular success last week in helping to restore the joys of commercial television . . . / On reviewing these points, it may seem possible that Harry . . . was a Hervey rather than a Walpole*.—In many contexts another choice would have been quite possible: *These Negro families are running some risk by accepting white people in their homes / he had died young and suddenly by falling from a builder's scaffold / In daring to suggest the possibility of Arab-Israeli negotiations, Bourguiba has made it most unlikely that any Arab leader will take such an initiative again / It always seemed to Lord Emsworth, in analysing these entertainments, that the . . . Saturnalia . . . reached a peak of repulsiveness . . . / 'Quel ton!' observed the Maréchal de Luxembourg, on reading the Bible / 'The tears came into my eyes' (on seeing a play called Aelfrida being very badly performed).*

By, near, on

As regards proximity, *near* expresses only a short distance: *he has a house near the river / Balmoral Castle near the village of Crathie / the sister of George III . . . was laid in the vault of the town church at Zell, near the coffin of her unfortunate grandmother*, while *by* contains a concept of dependence, attachment, etc.: *Stratford—the one by the*

Avon / she could see her with one of the children by her / Em knelt by Ma and put an arm round her shoulders / he has a house by the river; here the association that the complement is important to the member it is connected with is marked.—In some of the examples given on could also be used, viz. where the complement denotes an expanse from which something rises: *he has a house on the river / Baku on the Caspian Sea.*

By, past

In expressions of movement these may to some extent approximate each other: *I went by his house every day / he walked straight by me and into his study // carry on until you get past the house / he pushed past her across the room.* *By* expresses direction (i.e. 'passing without encountering, meeting, etc.'). *past* expresses in addition distance, i.e. 'further than' (cf. for *past* see the section on *beyond, past*).

By, through

Used of locality, as in *the rest of the class came crowding in by the lecture theatre door / 'Here we are, my dear,' said the bearer of the white mackintosh, coming in through the window,* *by* denotes means (cf. what is said of *by* under *at/by*), while *through* indicates that the movement is from (the out)side to (the in)side of the complement (or the reverse).—In figurative use the result is that the complement has the value of means and agent or instrument respectively: *Mr Callow's hero manages to get away from it all by physical love and by trips to the sea / the Belle Dame represented Love, Death by consumption and poetry all at once // the Dowager Queen promoted the tragedy in order to reign through her own son / While his Lordship consumed his port with a due sense of God's mercies through Christ, the country clergyman lived in penury.*

Used metaphorically to denote means, these two prepositions approach each other closely; normally *by* is used when the complement is indefinite and not limited, and *through* when it is definite and limited: *The Burgunda Parliament will be elected by universal suffrage / I wanted to find out by personal test how the Five Year Plan was working / the present dispute will be settled by negotiation // it was mainly through their influence that the promotion took place /*

through his imagination, patience, patience, and sympathy . . . Bishop Dean would be a worthy successor to Bishop Bayne / *through* an addition to his salary he was enabled to purchase the house he wanted.

Since the gerund and the verbal substantive are used particularly often of the action in general, *by* is the more frequent before that type of complement: *He often frightened me by talking as if he were angry / by reading this book he incurred the charge of atheism / He was thought to reward his mistresses by giving them sweepstake tickets.*

But *through* is gaining ground here: *It is thus, through wisely employing so enlightened and efficient an agent, that the Post Offices have themselves come to be regarded as amongst the more civilized of our government departments / over half the country's 8,750,000 people live through farming, mostly on tiny, uneconomic plots / we lost ourselves through not knowing the way.*

By, via

Both can be used of routes with geographical names as the complement: *he went to France via Newhaven / A return tour via Braemore takes in Loch Maree // We travelled to Paris by Dover and Calais / I went to Japan by Siberia but my wife went by Canada.*—If the complement is not a geographical name, only *by* can be used in British English, whether a route or a form of transport is expressed: *we came by the fields, not by the main road / we shall have to go round by the bridge // by rail, by train, by boat*; but in the U.S.A. *via* can also be used here: *Via Air Mail / via car or railroad.*

Used figuratively *via* is common in British as well as American English: *we complete the circuit . . . via the description of substance and form, through context, to language in use / the egghead who went from Upper Canada College to Grenoble and on via a Rhodes scholarship to Oxford / This book in no way minimizes your individuality, but it approaches that individuality via widely shared characteristics.*

By, with, (of)

By and *with* approach each other when the complement is regarded as a means; if the complement is a denotation for something concrete, only *with* is used: *kill two birds with one stone / one of the more exasperated fathers endeavoured to shoot him with a pistol / the miners'*

attempts to knock S. out with Scotch, but when it denotes something intangible, *by* is used: *the upper classes had to buy their peace of mind by actual money payment / he had astonished people by his sincerity / he effaced, by his personal courage and energy, the stain left on his reputation*. Many substantives have both a concrete and an intangible content, and we therefore find a corresponding variation in the prepositions used: *she moved him with (or by) her tears / they punished him with (or by) a fine / there is a patented invention for catching fish by electricity / the policy of governing Kaffirs by the sword / de Sade escaped with the aid of his wife / We'll win our battles by its aid (it = 'thought') // It was only too easy to break Struensee by torture—by thumbscrews, his page said later*.

There may be a particularly close approach between the two prepositions in the passive. If the concept of action is prominent, there is still a considerable difference between *by*-phrases expressing the agent, and *with*-phrases expressing the means: *he was beaten by his father / he was beaten with a stick*; but where a state or condition is denoted there may be a close approach: *they were fuddled with wine, entangled with the cord at their feet, blinded with pepper and paralysed by sneezes // a table covered with books and manuscripts / in the mouth of the transept, a stately dais, covered by a carpet worked by 150 ladies in Berlin wool // a huge Norman castle, surrounded by a triple moat / the modern electric fireplace is surrounded with the same glass*.

But even though there is a close approach, the content is different; the state expressed can be regarded either as something static, when *with* will be used, or with a resultative association, when *by* will be used: *the town was then lit with gas / a room lit by some last beams of February sun // he wore a cocked hat adorned with a plume (the appearance of the hat is expressed) / I make them a present of my story, which, adorned by a pretty woodcut of the old gentleman and his dog, would make, I submit, an effective pamphlet ('this illustration should be inserted') // I have never been afflicted with the mania for owning things, as Walt Whitman calls it / he was afflicted by a slight deafness (viz. after a fall)*.

Unusual cases are often particularly illustrative: *D. began this trip to Bali accompanied by an eighty-pound pet tortoise. Here he made his first film and became bitten with the bug to travel and record on film wild life and primitive peoples*. Removed from its context, the wording expected would naturally be 'bitten by the bug', but in combination with *became*, *with* of state or condition is naturally to be expected. Conversely in *the garden was infested by Angus McAllister*; normally

infested describes a state: *the place was infested with rats*, but here the result of a disagreeable person's presence is described.

But even in cases where the past participle can only be regarded as describing a state, and no resultative association can be assumed, the two prepositions are used alternately: *a road flanked with trees* / *a road flanked by small, expensive-looking shops* // *her sweet face was surrounded by a great number of pearls* / *he showed an extensive baldness surrounded with a mere fringe of hair* // (stage direction) *she is covered by a long mantle of furs, worth on a moderate estimate three times the furniture of the room* / *the still figure on the bed, its face covered with a sheet*. Here the distinction might be said to be as follows: *with* + complement is unobtrusive in the content of the utterance (the latter may make sense by itself, as in the last example above), and the subject is a more important member than the complement of *with*. The *by*-phrase is essential to the utterance, and the complement coming after *by* is of greater interest than the subject of the sentence or clause. A frequent consequence of this is that an indefinite complement is linked with *with*, and a more definite with *by*: *They were eaten up with envy of one another and devoured by petty jealousies* (+ countability) // *he was weighed down with sorrow* / *she sounded weighed down by my troubles* (+ determinative).

But the two are so close that the preposition used may be the one not expected: *I was so upset with seeing the master* (viz. murdered) / *Europe, and Poland especially, is disturbed with new rumours about Danzig* / *Every time M. came into the house, he was met with L.'s dumb inquiring gaze* // *Meredith himself has described once for all in The Egoist the delight of walking soaked through by rain*. In the last example, where *with rain* would be an obvious wording, the sentence then expressing 'to walk while one is soaked through', *by* gives the whole another slant, so that it is 'walking in rain' that becomes the dominant association.

By and *of* may be found in almost identical contexts in combination with the past participles of certain verbs. *Of* was formerly an agent preposition, as can still be seen in biblical language: *being warned of God in a dream that they should not return to Herod, they departed into their own country another way*. When the two prepositions are now found in cases such as: *he was beloved by everybody* / *the nerve-racking decorations beloved of proprietors who wanted to get customers out quickly* // *he was frightened by a shadow* / *many people, he had found, are frightened of anger* (this is colloquial, and influenced by *afraid of*) // *the practice had been neglected by the whole generation* / *it was indeed*

a scandal that so distinguished an author should remain neglected of the vulgar // she is possessed by the devil / like any other man possessed of great special talents, he was predestined by his gifts // he was tempted by the arrangement / whenever I am tempted of the Devil // she was tired by an arduous day's work / she was tired of being brave alone, of + complement here either has the value of an agent, and is then archaic: A God-forsaken place, is it really forsaken of God / the witty bachelor, that creature so sought of hostesses, or it serves to connect a past participle with adjectival value with its complement: he was frightened of the lower classes / they grew up terrified of the crowd, where frightened of is thus equivalent to 'afraid of', and not to 'frightened by'; cf. enamoured of = 'in love with', not 'captivated by'. The by-phrases have the value of agents, possessed by thus = 'dominated by', while possessed of = 'in possession of'; the following are clear examples of the two values: semantic analysis . . . sometimes tends to make obscure what to the ordinary reader, not possessed by (or of) seven ambiguities, is perfectly and pleasantly plain (Vallins: The Best English p. 58) / Lawrence, then, possessed, or, if you care to put it the other way round, was possessed by, a gift.

By the side of, see beside

Close to, see near

Concerning, see about

Despite, see notwithstanding

Down, see along

Due to, see owing to

During, for

During has as its complement a designation of a period of time, and *during* connects this either with a predicate having a durative associa-

tion of the extent of this period, or a predicate containing a connotation of one or more points within the period indicated by the prepositional complement: *he spent a night that he imagined to be sleepless, although in truth he slept during most of it* // *the Soviet Union will sign a separate peace treaty with East Germany 'during the next few weeks'*.

The first type approaches *for*; *during* + complement gives information as to 'when', and *for* + complement information as to 'how long': *no rain fell during that month* as against *he waited for a month* / *after the Norman Conquest Anglo-Norman was, for 300 years, the official language of the court, of justice, and of politics, and its influence on written English can be traced to an ever increasing extent during all this period*. Often both views can be taken of the same reality: *the City as it was during several years after 1945* / *there we stayed during the remaining days of the feast* / *During the last three years the hours of sunshine have averaged over 2,000* // *there are no rivers of importance, and even the mountain streams are dried up for the greater part of the year* / *the history of these humorous objects (i.e. a top hat and a pair of trousers) really does give a clue to what has happened in England for the last hundred years* / *(rubber) for the first four months 181,400 lb. have been obtained*.

During, in

In both the uses mentioned above, *during* may approach *in*: *during building, conditions are also carefully controlled* / *In insisting on Thursday on the need for real interdependence Mr Wilson was launching no new campaign* // *Umbrellas, indeed, were carried by officers during the battles of the Peninsular War* / *this is the dress she wore in the evening* // *he called to see me during my absence* / *you shouldn't call on his wife in his absence*. The difference here is that *during* refers only to time (duration), while *in* refers to circumstances; it is thus natural to say *he was killed in an air-raid*, while *in he gained a smattering of Spanish and lost a leg during the Chilean revolt*, *during* has ousted *in* because it can more easily be combined with the first-mentioned circumstance. But the two can be very close: *Devonshire cream . . . is eaten with raw fruit salad in the summer and with fruit pies during the winter*.

But complements solely denoting period (i.e. with no connotation of circumstances) also occur with the two prepositions: *in/during the*

reign of Queen Victoria/1940/January. Here *during* refers only to the period in question in itself; the Daily Mail Yearbook for 1949 thus states: *during* 1949 there were negotiations with France; while *in* has a distinctive value, namely 'within the period in question, not another'; thus in a history of England we find: *A World Peace Pact was signed in Paris in 1928.*—In phrases where the preposition links its complement with a predicate having an association of the same duration as the complement, *in*-expressions often have in addition an association of a development throughout the period in question: *the slowing down of expansion in the last few months / in the past ten or twelve years that tide* (viz. in politics) *has alienated the Western countries from the radical ideas of social and economic reform / in the next ten years the schools will lose about 150,000 young women teachers under 30. During* does not have this connotation: *it has been clearly shown during the course of the war that precisely our most 'passionate' novelists have been our least patriotic citizens.*

During, under

Examples: *During* Charles I's reign / *during* the times of the Stuart kings // live *under* the Stuarts / *under* Cromwell's rule / countries *under* French rule. Here the difference is so great that the two prepositions are not interchangeable; *during* refers to time, and *under* has the figurative value 'subject to'. But certain substantives of the type of *administration, government*, can denote both period and activity, and can thus be connected with the two values: *it was during the Regency that the power of Napoleon was broken / Wilde . . . tripped flippantly into a fatal trap during Carson's pitiless and staggering cross-examination / it is not easy to give a notion of his conduct under the Consulate and the Empire / In the eighteenth century, but particularly under the Regency, a gentleman was expected to have 'bottom' / 'Beef?' he was supposed to have said once, possibly under one of these attacks by ignorant gluttons.*

Ere, see before

Except(ing), bar(ring), but, save, saving

Of these, *except* is the commonest: *every day except Sunday / nobody was late except me / my papers seem to be everywhere except where they ought to be.*—In combination with the negative pronouns *nothing, none*, etc., the interrogative pronouns, and *all, every* and *any* (with their compounds), *but* is common: *no one would have thought of it but him / everybody thinks so but you / Who would do such a thing but him / There wasn't anything to do for either of us but pour out more whisky.* *Except* can be used in corresponding contexts, the difference being that in sentences using *but* the emphasis is on the principal part of the sentence, and the complement of *but* is of no great significance, while in *except*-sentences the emphasis is on the exception expressed in the complement: *The United States has a higher 'African' population than any country except Nigeria / Nothing . . . is worth our hatred if You (i.e. God) exist, except You / . . . forgetting when I woke that our love affair was over, that the telephone might carry any voice except hers.*

Save is markedly formal, often archaic or literary: *the snow fell, invisible save in the light from the window / they lost all save honour / the world seemed empty, uninhabited save by snow and voices.*

Apart from a few stock expressions such as *bar none* = 'without exception', *bar* is colloquial: *Of course he's Anglo-Catholic; they have holy water and the saints; everything bar the Faith.*

But, except and *save* are found together with *for* to express a reservation as to the whole statement. The prepositional phrase usually precedes or follows the predicate and is extra-positional, often separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. If the predicate is hypothetical, *but for* is used, otherwise *except for* or *save for*, with the stylistic distinction mentioned above, under *save*: *But for his sister Constance and her hawk-like vigilance, he might, he thought, have been able at least to dodge the top-hat / But for your help we should have been in a difficult position / / His skin, was fresh and young except for a small blue patch no larger than a half-crown / they were in bed and in the dark, except for the nightlight in its little saucer / / The two were alone in the street, save for the policeman at the corner / the personality . . . which we guess to be there, but which, save for glimpses, we can never find for ourselves.*—*Except for* instead of *but for* is not infrequent, but is regarded by some as incorrect: *There was something warm and*

ridiculous about all of them, which would have been lost *except for* the gossip of the age.

Besides *bar*, *except*, *save*, there are forms in *-ing*, which may have prepositional status (cf. 1.6.2.4). Examples are: (Czechoslovakia) *Barring East Germany . . . here was the most highly developed industry in the region* / *I don't suppose there's anybody in this place as knows as much about it as I do—barring Bob himself / the whole staff, not excepting the heads of departments / Books, saving only the Professor's own, you may—it is even expedient to—ignore*. This use of *excepting* is considered correct only after *not*, *always* (and *without*).

Following, see *after*

For

For + complement denoting distance or a period of time is in many cases interchangeable with expressions without *for*: *He had an alarming habit of changing the subject of any conversation that had lasted for more than two minutes* / *The steady, gentle look, their interchange, lasted moments* // *Ma waited for a few moments, and finding Em made no reply, turned towards the door* / *They had to wait an hour and a quarter to see G.* // *he walked briskly for a mile* / *We walked five miles*. *For*-expressions contain a subordinate idea that the period or distance in question is a part of a course or extent. The expressions without *for* normally presuppose that the designation of time or distance follows immediately after the verb; cf. *If I might stay the night, that would do me very well* / *She paused a moment, to make sure what he had said as against if he had stayed at home for the night, he would sit down to write at ten o'clock* / *they paused there for a moment*.

For may express 'in (someone's) interest', 'to (someone's) advantage' or the like: *here is a present for you*; this value may approximate closely that of the indirect object, and sentences are often encountered, particularly when this member is a personal pronoun, where both possibilities are present: *it'll do us till we find a flat or something* / *it'll take you longer to get straight and dress than me* / *He pulled me a chair to the fire* / *the porter went off to get them a taxi* / *I'd cross the world to find you a pin* / *Here is a band which won us valuable points* // *this sort of work won't do for me* / *he wanted a cheap car and asked Mr C. to get it for him* / *Please find Mary's hat for her* / *he soon won a reputation for*

himself. The concept of 'in (someone's) interest', 'to (someone's) advantage' is more reduced in the indirect object than in the prepositional phrase, and in several of the examples given the indirect object could be omitted without any particular change in the statement's content.

For, see after

For, against

When used of precautions against something undesirable, there may be a certain approach between these prepositions: *He has a few pounds against a 'rainy day' / we have no remedy against those optical deceptions / this medicine is of use against scurvy // the 'bootikins' worn by Horace Walpole for his gout / Turnip water, with a poultice of mashed turnips, was used for chilblains / Musk was given to the mad King George as a medicine for insanity*. *Against* carries the particular association that the measure is preventive, whereas expressions with *for* imply that the malady is present.

For, see as & at & during & from

For, in

These prepositions, which have earlier been separately compared with *during* (q.v.), may approach one another very closely. When followed by designations of periods of time, *for* expresses the concept 'how long': *in a heavyweight championship bout in Dublin in 1908, he lasted for exactly 88 seconds / republican sentiments are more widely held today than for quite a long time / the opinion of telecommunication experts is that cable will continue to be complementary to satellites for the foreseeable future*, while *in* with complements of this kind indicates that one or more single actions take place in the course of (within) the period in question, that a development takes place in the course of the period, or that a situation begins at the expiration of the period: *Two appointments in two weeks is the score for Mr L. / In the twenty years since VE-Day, 1945, there has been a great increase in the world's*

wealth / I shall be back in a week. In a few contexts either could be found with the associations mentioned: *his foreign policy has had only one setback in seven years / I haven't seen half enough of you in these last three years / . . . the reconsideration of an independent Cyprus as the only possible course to follow in the foreseeable future*; here the prepositional phrase expresses the concept 'in the course of', 'within', while the same phrases with *for* would express the concept 'how long'.—But *in* does occur with the same value as *for*: *I was having lunch with Maurice for the first time for two years / for the first time in fifty-six years Mrs Smythe was speechless // I haven't seen that in years / The Americans, rather to their own surprise, forced on the Soviet Union its first withdrawal in sixteen years / few ships cross this area. We saw none in six weeks / These thigh-slapping jolly vulgarians are the first foreigners these women have seen in many years / no large U.S. corporation . . . has failed or been seriously in danger of insolvency in many years.* This use of *in* is common in the U.S.A. and dialectal in Britain, but has gained so much ground in educated speech that it must be said to have established itself; this applies particularly in negative statements and in statements expressing a change that has taken place at the expiration of the period expressed by the complement.

For, see notwithstanding

For, to

With verbs and substantives expressing movement we find the two prepositions before substantives denoting the goal of the movement; the use of *to* indicates that this goal is reached, *for* that a movement in progress has the goal in question; compare *he has sailed for New York*, where *sail* = 'set out for', and *we sailed to the mouth of the river*. Expressions signifying departure will therefore use *for*: *he started for India last week / We're leaving for Cairo tomorrow / his departure for Berlin*, but expressions signifying the entire movement will use *to*: *he went to the station / It was glorious for the Catholic frontiersmen of English stock to travel to the established centres of their faith / their journey to Canterbury / He proposes . . . to be their guide and master of the ceremonies on the road to Canterbury and back.* However, quite often it is the less probable of the two associations that is combined

with the expression of movement: *I was back after my long detour, on the straight road again for Rome / his departure to Germany was the one thing he had desired all his life / he was on the point of setting off to Florida.*—A corresponding difference between the two prepositions is to be found with complements denoting meals; with *for* there is a subordinate idea of intention, with *to* of accomplishment (= 'have dinner', etc.): *S. came home for dinner / So they stayed in for tea / S. should be brought downstairs for tea // When he wanted a change he came down to dinner and slept at the D.O.'s bungalow / You'll stay to dinner of course / I should simply love to have him in to dinner sometimes.*

The first paragraph dealing with *for* showed that phrases with this preposition may closely approach the value of an indirect object; a similar reduction of content in *to* may be seen by comparing *he handed the book to me* and *he gave the book to me*, where *to* in the first example can be interpreted as having its primary value 'movement towards + achievement', but in the second is so reduced that the prepositional phrase corresponds in content to an indirect object: *he gave me the book*. In this blurred and reduced usage, where *for* and *to* can be regarded as dative equivalents, they may approach one another very closely: *For the man to whom a cathedral is a poem and for the man to whom it is merely a stone building, to each equally Bishop P. and Archdeacon G. are real men / Marvellous days, when she had all his tall, supple, fine-fleshed youth to herself, for herself, and he had her like a ruddy fire into which he could cast himself for rejuvenation / It's been a bad shock to all of us . . . That was a shock for you, wasn't it? / My boy's house was made unsafe for him, it was made miserable to him / He seemed to realize . . . the hopeless bitterness of the old man's struggle, and how hard life was for him when to himself it was so pleasant.* The difference in such cases is that *to* + complement is closely linked with the predicate—where the two prepositions are found in co-ordinate phrases, *to* + complement is placed nearest the predicate—and of the content it may be said that the activity implicit in the predicate 'encounters', 'reaches', 'affects' the complement (a transitive verb with a similar content often springs to mind: *bow to* = 'salute' / *lie to* = 'deceive' / *it happened to me* = 'it befell me'), while *for* + complement is less closely linked with the predicate—the phrase may be separated from it by a comma: *The heat of a piece of wood or iron is in fact more passionate, for us, than the laughter or tears of a woman*—and of the content it may be said that *for* expresses a concept expressed by words such as 'touch', 'concern'. Thus while *it was a shock to me* corresponds to 'it agitated me', *it was*

a *shock for me* corresponds to, for instance, 'it was a shocking event, which concerned me'.

When placed at the beginning of the statement the prepositional phrase with *for* is generally outside the predicate (and has a value such as 'in . . . 's view' or the like): *For a nation staggering under the weight of every imaginable economic malady, this gratuitous burden* (i.e. 'carrying pennies') *seems singularly perverse / For him the historic mission of the Jew is to keep steadily before the world that uncompromising spirit of pure reason and absolute justice characteristic of the Hebrew prophets / For Australia this has become a necessity.* Compare *fresh air is a necessity to the constitution.* Not the position, however, but the content is the decisive factor: *To me he was always a faithful friend* (corresponding to 'he befriended me') / *To eighteenth-century Denmark, his reforms must have been astounding.*

For-phrases are generally found, corresponding to expressions where the dative equivalent normally has *to*, in cases where the latter is followed by an infinitive: *There are also 90 Youth Hostels open to motorists / It was important to them that I should let them off morally / we are made to feel as if that thing were possible to us / if the British withdrew, the way would be open for the Soviet Union to establish itself in the Eastern Mediterranean / It will do something very important for me to see you there / it would be impossible for the Services . . . to separate themselves from the local population.* This is not merely a matter of euphony (the avoidance of a repetition of *to*); the prepositional phrase is in this way linked more closely with the infinitive and less closely with the preceding part of the statement (cf. 1.3.6.9). *It was a shock to me to learn this* might therefore be said to correspond to *to learn this was a shock to me*, and *it was a shock for me to learn this* to *for me to learn this was a shock*. Expressions with *to* + (pro)noun + infinitive are in fact quite common, with the attached concept of a dative equivalent: *You know how important it was to me not to let this be known / It only remains to me to thank all of you for the kindness and understanding and support which you have given to me and my wife during these two eventful years / It was awful to her to have him about—moving about in his shirt-sleeves.*

When *too* or *enough* is added to adjectives, the phrase is followed by *for*: *this task is too difficult for me / the book is not difficult enough for my son*, even though the adjective without these verbs could be followed by *to*: *these books are equally difficult to me*. But again, the content and not the presence of either of these adverbs determines

the choice of preposition: *for* expresses the sufficiency or suitability of the degree in question for the preposition's complement. If the effect of the adjectival concept on the complement is to be expressed we still find *to* used in these phrases: *The world* (i.e. the moon) *outside the sphere, I knew, would be cold and inhospitable enough to me.*

With substantives with verbal association (nomina actionis & agentis) we find the two prepositions alternating, with the difference to be expected: *to* when the complement can be said to correspond to the object of a verb corresponding to the substantive, *for* in the more independent phrase having a value such as 'for the good of . . .', 'in . . . 's view', or the like: *that same manner might even prove an attraction to any one who loved him / he is under an obligation to S. for his help / the new marriage . . . was a shock to S. / Mr B., lawyer to the African national leader / Camilla acted as secretary to Sir J. S. / the toady chaplain as the tutor to a noble family waited for preferment / He had his attractions even for Fanny / . . . persuading the British Government to give as much money for developing agriculture in tribal areas as it has been giving to buy out the white farmers, for whom it has a more obvious obligation / It was a shock for the young soldier. He felt something sink deeper, deeper into his soul . . . / he was filling a job as reporter for a London newspaper at three pounds a week / Mr B. has a way of striking off storms, and no doubt he will often act as a lightning-conductor for Mr Lloyd.*

Expressions such as *open the door for/to* perhaps deserve a special mention, since one may come across the assertion that in *for*-expressions the persons in question are on the same side, and in *to*-expressions on either side, of the door; this may appear to be true in cases such as *he passed out by the door which F. opened for him / it was B.'s wife who opened the door to M.* This is however an irrelevant circumstance; the distinction is that already stressed: the *to*-phrase is closely linked with the preceding predicate, i.e. *open the door to* is roughly equivalent to 'admit'—cf. *he opened the gates to the enemy*—while the *for*-phrase is more independent, and expresses a concept such as 'for . . . 's benefit', or more reduced 'in answer to a knock', or the like, and the preceding predicate is more descriptive: *With a fierce delight in his own realism he described the woman who had opened the door for him.*

The distinction between the two prepositions described in this section naturally means that a phrase using the preposition least to be expected has a particular slant to the content; for instance, *happen to* is the common phrase (= 'encounter'): *We do not care what*

happens to his (i.e. the author's) *puppets* as against *The Bishop of Accra . . . said that . . . his expulsion was the best thing that could have happened for the Church in Africa*, where the special implication is 'seen from the Church's point of view', or perhaps 'to the benefit of the Church';—*cater for* is the common phrase, meaning 'to supply food or entertainment to': *R. & B. have catered fastidiously for every occasion, whether it be a State Banquet or a modest boardroom luncheon / the Committee has done a great deal to broaden the festival's scope and almost every taste will be catered for*, while *cater to* may be said to correspond to 'pander to': *this type of book caters to the lowest taste*.—But the fact that the difference is so slight may result in vacillation in use without any specific intention: *R. & B. (caterers since 1690) cater to your needs / Tell me what certain words mean for you and I will tell you what you mean for the world of thought* (where the first *for* may be intentional, while we can hardly ascribe any other value to the second than that of the *to* it has replaced).

Lastly, it may be mentioned that the cases where there is a wide difference between the two prepositions have not been included above; that is, such cases as: *President de Gaulle cannot do a great deal to them* (viz. people in Latin America), or *for them // Westminster Hall should have a permanent exhibition of the history and Constitution of Britain, with ready access for the public / this is the only access to the house // You're too good to me / he is too good for this world*.

From

In the case of a few verbs which in themselves have an association of removal, expressions without prepositions were formerly used where *from* is now necessary: *he was expelled the country*, now *from where*; *he departed (from) this life*, and with *dismiss* to denote loss of a post: *he was dismissed (from) the service*.—(That will not prevent me (from) reading detective stories does not belong to this type; here . . . *me reading* is the object of *prevent*, and in content equivalent to *my reading*—cf. 1.6.5).

From, see against

From, by

He might profit by their experience / none of those who intend to marry . . . can fail to profit from her advice // by the look on Ma's face she could see that anything might happen now / Troilus . . . oblivious (you could see from his expression) of everything but the eyes of Cressida // death by consumption / his sudden death from blood-poisoning.

By indicates the immediate basis or the immediate cause, *from* indicates distance from the basis or cause.

From, for, with

These prepositions approximate one another to some degree after intransitive verbs and adjectives, to express the cause of the condition or quality denoted by these: *When I thought of it, I could have died for shame / she died from natural causes / he was ready to die with vexation // H. dangled her long red hands, red from the night air, before the grate / My hands were blue with cold.*

From's association of distance here leads to the subordinate idea 'after-effect': *Her cheeks shone from recent soaping / The walls . . . had grown so black from smoke and soot that you could write your name on them / M.'s letters felt worn and old from much handling;* while *with* indicates that the cause is still present: *They roared like bulls with pain and helpless anger / Em could have screamed with exasperation / his flanks dark with sweat.*—In many cases both views are possible: *the hands clenched slowly from anger and helplessness / My hands were numb . . . (I was) near to breaking down from the intensity of the cold / she fled along the pavement . . . until she was breathing with her flight.*

In this usage *for* corresponds to *with* in content, i.e. indicates 'a present cause', but is found only in a few stock phrases: *'You believe in the life to come?' said Spode, and immediately flushed for shame / Are you crying for joy or for sorrow this time? / With limbs stiffening for sheer terror, I stood listening.*

From, of

These may approximate one another when used before complements denoting the material of which something is made: *this tobacco is made from* (or *of*) *select leaves*, *from* expressing origin (and change), *of* nature. Compare such examples as: *the manufacturer has to state whether it has been prepared from one substance or from more than one substance / butter is made from cream by churning / the West-of-England hill country famous for its lovely golden stone from which many beautiful towns and villages have been built // the furniture was made of pine / He was not of the stuff of which great men are made / Even in Eden . . . all was not purer than the fields and moors under the burden of the carpet formed of the myriad scintillating flakes.*

This is a quotation *from* Shakespeare / *a piece of music was still open on the rack, it was something of Debussy // they expect something from him and he is not at all sure that he has it to give / Perfect . . . is a thing we none of us are, and I never asked or expected it of you // After lunch, in his study, he prepared to talk about his work. 'Now, what do you want from me?' / I do wonder why M. went with that woman last night . . . Whatever could he want of her?—or she him? // . . . allow all employees to have at least some Sundays free from work / the prestige of the College (of Science) is high, and its scholarships free of any age limit, dredge deeper even than do those of the Scotch universities. Here we find the same distinction as before, though in figurative use: *from* expresses origin and removal, *of* the existing nature, or the existing condition. Thus *he was relieved from fear and anxiety* carries an association on the lines of 'had left fear behind', while *certainly he was relieved of the formality of paying eight pounds a week* contains an idea of 'did not have the burden of'. Compare also: *he died of fever and starvation / one day you'll catch your death of cold*, *of* referring to the immediate cause; and *he died from the wound / there have been several deaths from drowning this year*, where *from* indicates a more remote, external (accidental) cause.*

From, see off

From, out of

These two may be very close when the complement denotes a space, or there is an association with such a concept (e.g. 'room' with complements such as *window, door*): *she undid the basket and emptied out the biscuits and oranges from their bags / distant music in the ballroom floated from the window / a bolt from the sky // a sailor selling bunches of green grapes out of barrels of cork dust / the face of a ghost from the future stared at her out of the looking-glass / Things drop out of the sky / Someone in the crowd must have taken it out of my pocket // H. took a notebook out of the drawer of his table . . . drew a stumpy pencil from his pocket*. Here *from* indicates that the complement is the starting-point of the movement in question, while *out of* indicates in addition that this is a 'space'; thus *he fell out of a tree and broke his neck* has the association 'the tree-top'.

Figuratively the same slight distinction is found in: *a word from you, and he'll be happy / The Minister reads from a text designed to give as little as possible away / I am sure he acted from the highest motives // one crack out of you and I tender my resignation / he read a scene out of a new play by S. / an extraordinary man and good, I am sure, out of sheer kindness and sweetness of nature*.

It was stated above, under *from/of*, that *from* may express 'origin + change'; this use may approach *out of* when used of transformation from one state into another: *steel is made from iron / a man was weaving sweetstuffs from a pliant roll of warm toffee / Such was the stuff from which the Thomas Atkins of a later age developed // she made these toys out of old cigar-boxes / out of his name* (i.e. Quisling) *the English coined an epithet for a knave / he has still, it seems, some of the material out of which all capacity for happiness is made / out of the greatest sinners have been made the poets, saints and martyrs*.

In

Approximation between the substantival phrase and the prepositional phrase in adverbial use is discussed in 13.4.4; a few more examples may be given: *if he composed the novel in the way he did, it is because that is how he wanted it / (headline) Revolution the British Way // devaluation of the pound is inevitable in the next month or so / In 1665 the commission visited New England, and the following year the king sent a circular letter to all the colonies*.

It may be questioned if all those who ostensibly made themselves so busy in exploring woods and fields and lanes were quite so thorough when it came to the private examination of their own lofts and outhouses / they were busy packing (cf. 1.6) // The play was five or six months finding its shape before writing began, and eight months in writing // All the time that Oxford spends in learning the difference between one Middle English dialect and another, Cambridge spends in constructing this sieve (viz. Criticism) / Anne spent the morning writing letters and working. Here in indicates that the activity contained in the gerund complement lasts the time stated.—(In the examples below in + gerund differs from on + gerund, which has the association 'immediately after', and from by + gerund, which indicates that the activity serves as a means; and all three differ from corresponding phrases without a preposition (where the -ing-form is then the present participle), the latter expressing merely the going on of the activity implicit in the present participle, without the special values attached to the three prepositional phrases (cf. 1.6.2.2): In setting forth an inventory of vices and virtues, in assembling the principal facts of the passions, in painting characters, in choosing the principal incidents of the social world, in composing types by combining the traits of several homogenous characters, perhaps I could manage to write the history forgotten by so many historians, the history of manners and customs // She dropped her handkerchief, and on politely picking it up he noticed that the book was one of his / on arriving in Paris, she found that the house was mortgaged / on being presented to Queen Charlotte, his breeches 'broke loose from their moorings' // a play by a certain Dr D. was a failure, but he consoled himself by stating that the leading lady had spoilt . . . / Horace boasts of his own 'no-weight', saying that he cannot hurt himself by falling downstairs / this is what Mr G. himself has explicitly tried to establish, by forcing a test case to make Conference decide whether what he teaches is the same as 'our doctrines' // Walking into a room by one door and out by another he turned along a narrow corridor.

In, see at & by & during & for & inside

In, into

In denotes position within, *into* movement directed towards a point within what is denoted by the complement: *he was sitting in the*

garden / he walked into the garden. But of these two only *into* is distinctive; *she disappeared into the house* is unequivocal; while *in* can be widely used with a content corresponding to that of *into*: *throw it in the fire* = *throw it into the fire*, and a sentence such as *she disappeared in the house* is in itself ambiguous.

Because of its distinctive content *into* can be used with a particular stylistic effect when the context naturally expresses position; the use of *into* then enriches the concept of position with the idea of the preceding movement: *I had only been into the room on rare occasions / we aren't into open water yet / Safely locked into the bathroom, she had leisure to take stock of her injuries / he was the first into flannels in spring.* Figuratively and metaphorically we find: *Here in New York we are well into a new cricket season / Dr Johnson . . . was the last of the great Moguls of Grub Street, who lived into the patrician period / The sketches which Mr T. has collected into this volume are characteristic of Mr C.'s best period / Professor V. E. heads exploration into English writing at the old university.*

In was formerly commonly used of movement and direction, but it has gradually been almost entirely replaced in this sense by *into*. The former usage is, however, found in certain connections in modern English:

Certain stock expressions have only *in*, despite their content: *fall in love / look (people) in the face / take . . . in hand / (break something) in two (but into two parts)/(cut the loaf) in half (but into halves) // the number of people he has already put in prison.*

With a number of verbs variation is found between retained *in* of the resulting position, and *into* of movement or change: *he has probably come in contact with a greater variety of people than . . . / A rope hanging from the balloon came into contact with an electric power line // he dipped his pen in(to) the ink // Few things make the leaves of a book stick together so easily as being dropped in a hot bath / He dropped the letter into the pillar-box // this steady strip of light, shed forth over a threshold level with the road . . . inspires in me a sense of deep trust / the hope T. inspired into his disciples // Did you put milk in my tea? / Placing the fifty-pound note upon the letter L. carefully folded them together and put them both into the envelope // of ocean cables alone there are now nearly one hundred and forty-three thousand miles, which have been sunk in the depths of the sea / she sank lifeless into his arms // she thrust the towel in his hand / he thrust his hands into his pockets.*

In many of the examples given above, the distance between the two values attached to the two aspects of the verbal concept is

small enough to permit the use of the other preposition, i.e. the type *he stuck his hands in(to) his pockets*. But in many cases such an alternative form of expression is not found in normal speech, even though both concepts are conceivable: *he stuck a rose in his button-hole / he placed the book in the drawer / he was landed in a strange city without money / When the police came, the crowd scattered in all directions // the academic may become overexcited when pitched into the centre of power—and perhaps still more when pitched out again / the risk of a recession has been put further into the future / Saint Augustine, Calvin, and Martin Luther were among those rendered into English / some 'big man' . . . rising . . . and throwing the 'time table' of subsequent speakers into confusion.*

The use of *in* where *into* is normal can seem mannered: *At lunch he went in the room where a long time ago he used to take his young nephew / Racism is bound to grow in a Parliament divided in two blocks—of 50 whites facing 13 blacks; or it may be actually misleading, as in PLANE DIVES IN RESERVOIR as the headline of an account of a crash.—Into where in is normal is encountered in careless speech: the Labour member for B. has been landed into an uncomfortable position / a number of compositions, cast into the same mould / the threads ran away into various directions.*

In, on

See also *by*.

In denoting 'enclosed by', 'inside', 'at the bottom of' a space, and *on* denoting 'outside', 'on top of' an expanse, are in combination with many complements so different in content that there is no question of any approximation: *In W.'s sick-room . . . he sat . . . gazing . . . at the ghastly skeleton in the bed / she found the old man lying fully dressed on his bed // he kept the books locked up in a desk / Dickens had to have certain objects on his desk, without which he could not write a line // We'll keep her living in our hearts / the story of Mary having 'Calais' written on her heart // horses drinking knee-deep in duck-crowded ponds / the ducks were still swimming on the ponds.—The content of the prepositional phrases is here clearly distinguished by the locality concepts attached to the prepositions, while the reality denoted by the complement may be exactly the same in the parallel examples.*

Every morning he sat *in* the high-backed chair under the window of geraniums, his red neckerchief dangling on the arm of the chair / he had tea alone, then sat *on* a deck-chair on the lawn and read . . . // tomorrow evening Charles would lean back *in* his chair with a gusty sigh / Mrs R. got up from the hearthrug and sat *on* a chair // Hugh was *in* the sofa near the fireplace / he got up and sat down *on* the sofa beside her. These examples differ from those already given in that the complements of the prepositions also differ in content (viz. 'armchair' as against an ordinary chair, 'deep' sofa as against an ordinary sofa). The difference from the preceding type is perhaps best seen by comparing the first two examples with *bed* with *I who lie here on a hospital bed, have . . .*, where *on* is used because of the type of bed (its height, etc.).

An alternation between the two prepositions corresponding to such a difference in content as can be attributed to the complement is found with many substantives: *The earliest in that list were Geoffrey Saint-Hilaire, Dr Erasmus Darwin, Lamarck, and apparently Goethe* (list roughly equivalent to 'number of names') / *put my name on the list* (list roughly equivalent to 'flat expanse with names on') // *a batch of black hens dust-bathing in the hot road / I have dropped it somewhere on the road* (: 'area' as against 'line', 'route') // . . . *an inspiration to learn in the career of the first Earl of Birkenhead, as from other figures in these pages, that there is no bar of class . . . / you haven't put numbers on the pages of the manuscript / The King's congratulations are reported on another page* ('content' as against 'flat expanse'); thus with *picture, photograph*, and the like.

The closest approximation between the concepts of the two prepositions is found in combination with complements denoting a limited expanse; here *in* denotes 'within the limits of the area stated', *on* directs the attention to the expanse: *an engagement took place in the plain between Rastatt and Kuppenheim / The climate of Cyprus is healthy, though on the plain in the summer the heat is apt to become excessive* // *two bright spots of colour had flamed up high in her cheeks . . . the two scarlet spots were still on her cheeks* // *he was wounded in the face / On his face was a happy smile* // *the men were working in the fields / Another example of the political abuse of the Crown's power is in the field of honours / those who have won distinction on the playing fields / On the field the blues and the reds darted madly about*. Certain substantives denote phenomena where one or the other of the associations mentioned is prominent, and these are then combined (almost) solely with one of the two prepositions: *in the*

garden / in the market-place / in the square // on the lawn / on the moor / on the common.

In a number of indications of locality *in* and *on* are interchangeable in so far as *in* + complement has an association of appearance ('scenery', 'community', 'world', etc.), while *on*-phrases lack this: *Every fine day he went out fishing, with his son, every fair day there was fresh fish in the island / Minorca . . . on the island there was an octogenarian governor // There is a hill not far from my home whence it is possible to see northward and southward such a stretch of land as is not to be seen from any eminence among those I know in Western Europe . . . the sea-plain . . . the weald . . . small market towns . . . blue downs . . . the Kentish hills . . . In such a spot, on such a high watch-tower of England, I met, three days ago, a man / Mr M. set foot in England on the spot where the news of the death of Nelson and the victory of Trafalgar was first brought // The Yeoman Usber and the Sergeant-at-Arms have flats in the premises, it is said, because they would not like to be seen crossing the street in their handsome silk stockings and knee-breeches / not to be consumed on the premises // preoccupied with racial problems in their own continent / the reaction against the accepted fashion began on the Continent // (reservoirs) . . . shaggy with tufts of a monstrous . . . lichen . . . They might be walls of ice, so cold their aspect; or of a matter discoverable only in another planet / As though we were living on different planets, in different countries // dreams . . . take him . . . to another earth. There are no footmen in this other earth, and the kettle-stands, I suppose, will not be made of silver / the motion of the moon as seen by an observer on the earth.*

Lastly, two special cases: With *mind* as complement *in* has its usual value of 'within a space' (here figuratively), *on* + *mind* has a special association of a (heavy) problem: *I turned it over in my mind / the Commonwealth Prime Ministers have had much else on their minds / (of a character that is giving the author trouble) He lies heavily on my mind.—The machine had to be assembled in the street / When he and they passed each other on the street, they raised their canes and touched the brims of their hats with them, in formal salute; here British and American usage differ. (In British English on the street can be used in the sense 'living as a prostitute'.)*

In + designations of the time of day regarded as periods of time: *he arrived on the 17th in the morning / at eleven o'clock in the morning of the 28 April they were brought to the scaffold and on in stating dates: On the 7th there were rumours that the lions from the tower had been let loose may approach each other to some extent, in so far as such*

expressions serve as 'statements of date': *On the afternoon before. Henry had wavered / the details of the night on which Tristram Shandy was conceived / the front door opened and closed, just as it had on that other night when . . .*

In, see out of & under & with

In front of, see before

In spite of, see notwithstanding

In the centre of, in the middle of, in the midst of, see amid

Inside (of), in, within

In of what is two-dimensional: *in the London area amateur Sunday games of all kinds are now almost universal*, and of what is three-dimensional: *he is in the next room*, approach respectively *within* and *inside*; these, however, carry more significance, *within* denoting 'within the limits of the complement', and *inside* having secondary meanings such as 'covered', 'hidden', 'protected'. Examples: *Within his own square mile of the City he* (i.e. the Lord Mayor) *owes precedence only to the reigning sovereign / Each of these* (i.e. organizations) *represents a complete London within London / / the noise came from inside the house / inside the tents, their tables stacked with tapering carrots, giant lettuces and onions which are their cultivators' darlings, the heat is terrific.*

Inside is also used, however, with area designations as complement, when expressing opposition to *outside*: *Only in the Arabian peninsula is there still open discord. Here, in three areas, fighting or the threat of fighting continues—inside Yemen, on the borders of Yemen and the South Arabian Federation, and in Muscat / The Geneva talks are beginning again while tension is rising inside Turkey / The appointment of Lord Home as Prime Minister was the result of bitter power struggle inside the Conservative Leadership.* But *inside* also occurs where the distinctive concept is weak or lacking, and then closely approximates

in: One of the most interesting developments in recent years has been the growth of republican forms of government *inside* Commonwealth countries that have retained the Crown as a symbolic link / National Parks, guaranteeing access to mountains *inside* their areas,⁹ are in course of creation.

Certain words whose central significance is something three-dimensional, can also be used of 'area', and are then combined with *within*: it would be more difficult to achieve a rational distribution of accommodation *within* the Palace (: of Westminster) than it would to build a new building (the matter under discussion is the floor space available) / discussions are now resounding *within* the palace / the latest proposals for the reform of the Lords have originated *within* that house.

The same distinction—the concept of (a sheltering) space versus limits—is seen in connection with complements denoting the limitation of an area: he was scarcely *inside* the door when the crash came / (Stonehenge) *Inside* the bank is a ring of 56 pits // the labyrinth of narrow streets lying *within* the walls of Nicosia / (Stonehenge) On the outside is a circular ditch . . . with a bank immediately *within* it / you must keep *within* doors.

Inside may also be followed by a complement denoting the goal of a movement, i.e. it also corresponds to *into* (+ a resultative association): we have to dismiss so much from our minds before we can crawl *inside* theirs / the darkness seemed to have got *inside* one's head / he (: a policeman) passed *inside* the cells which he had helped others to enter.

Within is used of distance = 'less than', 'at the most': the church must be *within* a stone's throw / The attractive premises are *within* a few minutes' walk of the Palace of Westminster // This is *within* one cent of the 'normal' price.

Of time, we find *in* in the sense 'in the course of': He accomplished this *in* one year approximating *within* = 'in the course of not more than', 'in less than': *Within* seven weeks, the unlucky Caroline was dead / *within* 40 years a third of the urban population and one fifteenth of the rural may become literate in English / George I had been told that he would die *within* a year of his imprisoned wife. *Inside* used in this way: I shall be back *inside* an hour is common in the U.S.A., less common in British English.—The approximation between *in* and *within* with complements denoting a period of time is closest when the phrases give information as to 'when': an historic island fortress, built *in* the reign of Elizabeth I / he was perhaps the first of the great

Moguls of aristocracy, born within the Age of Reason; the distinction is that stated of indications of locality, namely that *within* stresses the limits.

In figurative use, *within* is found, as was to be expected, of 'area': *within the region of the common language / most Victorian agnostics thought and felt within conventional Christian terms / this is not within the law*; *inside* is, however, used here as distinct from *outside*: *G. acted in a way which the rules don't permit, while I kept strictly inside them*.—Before complements denoting states of mind, *within* is commonly used: *hope sprang up within him / the fire that burned within him / the image of Georgie . . . was active within me / these forces are concentrated within the mind of man*.—In an example such as *She too, like a neurotic, was nailed inside her own fretful self-consciousness* the metaphor is given a more vivid significance by the preposition used.

Inside of is common in the U.S.A. both of place and of time: *he parked his car inside of the gate / I shall be back inside of an hour*. In British English this phrase must be described as colloquial.

Into, see in

Near (to), close to

Near, see also by.

Close to and *near* both denote proximity, the former expressing a closer proximity, and sometimes even contact: *she held the baby close to her breast*. Used of a short distance *close to* implies that the distance is insignificant, while *near* indicates that a certain distance does exist: *Campden Hill situated conveniently close to the market-town of Notting Hill Gate / the picture was taken close to the object / the ship kept close to the coast / court favourites (including Nell Gwynn) took houses here (: Pall Mall) to be near the court and to overlook St James's Park / the 6th French army, supporting the exposed flank of the British contingent, was near Noyon / don't go near the edge*.

Near (to): If *near* is not immediately followed by the complement, *to* must be attached: *He was as near as could be to being knocked down by a bus*.—With the complement immediately attached, *near* is most frequently used alone of locality (see examples above), more rarely *near to*: *He . . . went to join a group of his comrades who were lounging*

in the shade . . . He only stood near to them for the warmth of the association; figuratively near to is usual: The present ideal in writing seems to be to get as near to the spoken idiom as possible / He was unheeded, happy and near to the wild heart of life / I was near to breaking down, although near alone is not uncommon: this will always be near my heart / the U.S. Federal Maritime Commission's attempt to restrict the trade of British and other foreign shipping . . . comes somewhere near reproducing it (: the old system) in modern form without the excuse of war.

Next (to), after, beside

While *next to* used of position expresses only juxtaposition in a row: *the house next to ours*, and *after* in the corresponding usage also implies time and thus expresses succession: *my name comes after yours*, they may approximate one another used figuratively of order or rank: *West Germany is now the World's third great industrial Power, after the United States and the Soviet Union / the finest sight after Mont Blanc / / The very greatest of all such brands was Dr James's Powder . . . Next to this cure came laudanum and calomel.*

Beside expresses the concept 'side by side', *next to* also the idea of 'a row': *he sat beside the driver / come and sit beside me / / Spode had arranged to sit next to Mrs Cayman / Anna—there. Mr Inskip next to her.*

Next is interchangeable with *next to* in the latter usage: *Next me, on my left, was the dark young woman, whose . . . / the young Cubist sitting next him was not insane and actually knew a surprising amount about the Old Masters; this applies particularly when it is a question of proximity rather than order: The man standing next him glanced at Philip / He doesn't like wearing wool next his skin (The Advanced Learner's Dictionary).*

Notwithstanding, despite, for, in spite of

Notwithstanding is followed by a complement denoting an obstacle present: *Sylvia, notwithstanding her name, was accustomed to nothing more sylvan than 'leafy Kensington' / She was an English-woman, an ash-blonde, and, notwithstanding her nationality, voluptuous; in spite of* is followed by a complement denoting a serious

obstacle, possibly active opposition: *in spite of complex economic problems . . . Poland is still making useful, unspectacular progress / He dropped the little darling in spite of warnings and protests; despite* is a little mannered, and is found with both types of complement: *Full employment has meant fuller larders, even despite rationing / carry S. he did, despite warnings and kickings.* The difference between *despite* and the other prepositions is slight enough to allow them to be used interchangeably for the sake of variation: *Notwithstanding the regularity of his tread, there was caution in it, . . . and despite the fact that it was not a black coat nor a dark garment of any sort that he wore, there was something about him which . . .* But there is a marked difference between the first two, so that, for instance, *I shall remain faithful to him, in spite of everything and notwithstanding everything* is not simply a case of tautology.

For can be used with a similar content when followed by *all*: *for all that it worried him / it was painful, for all the extraordinary brilliance and profundity of what he said, to listen / the British Council, for all its comparatively tiny budget, has been a most effective centre of organization for language teaching.*

Of

A number of verbs are linked with their complement either directly or by *of*. Most often there is considerable difference in content, but in certain cases there may be some approximation. With *ask*, *of* is found with its original value 'from' in the type *you ask too much of me* (i.e. *ask* = 'demand') as against *I asked him his name*; but in the latter usage *of* was formerly used, and may still be encountered: *the man of whom I asked the way / 'Is that thunder and lightning?' she asked of the young policeman.*

In many cases immediate attachment expresses the verbal concept's complete 'control' of the complement, while an added *of*, with a content equivalent of 'concerning', has the effect of weakening the verbal concept's influence on the complement, e.g. *you must have dreamt it / I dreamt of you last night / / Have you heard the news? / I've never heard of it / / I don't know the case, but I know of it.* —But the difference may be slighter: *The minutes of the meeting were read and approved* (quoted from *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary*) / *The maid Rose, who liked Mill but adored Jane, whom Mill approved for the very reason of that preference, came . . . / I don't approve of his*

conduct, where the direct complement denotes explicit approval, and the use of *of* an approving attitude.—*Mr J.'s comfortable bachelor quarters could not boast such married opulence / he is always boasting of his pictures*: here the verb is used in the first example in the sense 'display', and in the second in the sense 'brag', but the difference is not too great to allow the use of *of* in the first type. In *He will soon bitterly repent his folly / Don't you repent of your sins* the difference is merely that the first is the new, the second the obsolescent form of expression, with the consequent subordinate concepts of the colloquial and the formal respectively.

The vagueness of content of this preposition brings it into contact with other forms of expression: *he saw Sheila's face, pale, luminous, resolute, and behind her the meanly precise face of her father, the tame and lumpy face of her mother / he had been ill since February of this year* (compare *this year* used adverbially, without *of*). Of most interest in this account are the many cases where *of* with a blurred value is interchangeable with other prepositions with a somewhat more clearly defined content.—*He looked out of the window / what lassitude, what utter weariness of spirit looks out, too often, at their eyes // he owed his knowledge of Latin to the plentiful flogging of his master, Mr Hunter / under one of these attacks by ignorant gluttons // These are the men who have a love of literature, but no gift of creation / the public has no love for the old party system / he has a gift for languages // beyond the chimneys you could see the long glare from lights in High Holborn, and hear the hums and boots of buses // His membership of the Society (Brit.) / his membership in the Society (U.S.) // he is the eldest of the family / George was born in 1719, the second son in a family of Gloucestershire landowners // There were two others—contributors who were of, but not on, the staff. That is to say, they were liable to be called at any moment to write for the paper, but were unsalaried, being paid by space // That was the beginning of all our troubles / the chemical industry reorganized . . . that would be an easy beginning to correcting balance-of-payment difficulties.*

Of, see about & by & from & to

Off, from

These prepositions can be used in almost identical contexts to denote 'movement from'; *from* indicates that the complement is the starting-

point of the movement, *off* that distance (separation) from the complement results: *the tiles flew off the gables / he fell off his horse / I brushed a few grains of scurf off his shoulder // he leapt from a high rock into the sea / Mr S. is recovering from a dislocated pelvis, caused when he was thrown from a horse / take the book from the desk.* — *Off* is also used figuratively, as in *The Prime Ministers have not come all the way to London to score points off each other / take this off my hands*; in a more elevated style *from off* is found with the same value: *take this weight from off my heart*. *Off* could formerly be used with *buy, borrow, hire*; this is now obsolescent, and has been replaced by *from*: *He bought a match-card off a boy on his favourite Mound stand (Neville Cardus) / he might have borrowed money from S.*

The two prepositions can be used of position with a corresponding difference: *a back street off the Brompton Road / keep off the grass / the wheel was off the car // a village some miles from the main road / the estate was about ten miles from the nearest town / he is away from home*. (Of position at sea, *off* has the special sense 'opposite': *the great, gold-laced coat which he hurled into the sea off Gibraltar*). — Figuratively this value of *off* is encountered in the type: *he is off duty / she is off her head / The moon hung golden, three days off full*.

Off and *of* are really phonetic variants of one and the same word, but an approximation between them is rarely found now; *off the mark* may, however, be mentioned, which has *of* for *off* in combination with *wide*, both literally and figuratively used: *as a rough description of the pampas this is not so very wide of the mark*.

On

With a number of verbs the complement is attached either directly or by means of *on*, the former combination having a perfective value, the latter an association of an incomplete action: *My grey stockings had been darned with blue worsted / she was darning on a sock // she embroidered the handkerchief with a pattern / he could not embroider on the story // improve your health by exercise / we might improve on the invention // this education refined his taste / eighteenth-century poets thought they could refine on their predecessors*.

In a number of cases a distinction similar to that mentioned under *of* is found: used transitively the verb indicates 'control' of what is denoted by the complement, while this concept is not expressed in

corresponding combinations with the preposition: *I still clung to the old violin, with the vague hope that I might one day learn to play it / Jane's beautiful playing on her Blütner cottage-grand // Can you ride a bicycle? / the man approached riding on an old bicycle // (Of the velocipede) tall men could sit a higher wheel . . . the rider sits on the saddle.*

On, see about

On, after

Used of time, *on* indicates 'immediately after', *after* simply 'later than': *She mentioned the Scandal to him with simulated indignation, on which his Lordship answered politely: 'Madam . . . / he was born at St Cloud and came to England on the death of his father // She died at sixty-eight, after receiving an offer of marriage from Prince R.*

The two prepositions may approximate each other to some degree in the type subst. — subst., as in: *each broke law on law / IT IS TIME, LORD is beautifully written, page on page // the notion of bringing the same characters into novel after novel.* Here *on* expresses addition, accumulation, and *after* merely succession. (See also *upon*.)

On, see against & at & by & in

On, on to

Just as *in*, which was formerly used both of movement + direction and of position, has developed *into* to cover the first concept, so *on* has developed *onto* or *on to* (the first spelling*) is particularly common in the U.S.A.). But while the distinction between *in* and *into* is almost completely consistent (see these prepositions), the use of *on to* of movement + direction is not nearly so consistent, and corresponding to *on* of position we frequently find either *on* or *to* when movement and direction are expressed: *We descended the stairs together. When we issued on the court the moon had risen / the priests went down on their knees / he got on his feet // he gave his hand to Anne to help her down to*

*) When *on* has the value of an independent adverb the two words are of course not written as one: *they walked on to the town.*

the platform / The Bishop rose to his feet / Sometimes I would take her up to the promenade deck. But on to is now fairly common; the concept of direction can be of any kind (up, down, or movement on the same level): the old man stepped over the low bulwark on to the deck / (under a picture) helicopter lowering the two-ton flèche on to Coventry Cathedral / amid tumultuous applause Sarah was carried onto the stage.

Just as we found *into* used where the normal usage would be *in*, so *on to* can be found instead of the normal *on*: *when you keep animals as pets . . . you generally manage to impress some of your own characteristics on to them / He looked at me with confusion and dripped snow on to the parquet / the creature took refuge down a hole . . . so we flung ourselves on to the grass.*

On the other side of, see beyond

Onto, see on

Opposite (to), over against

Over against adds to the content of *opposite* the association 'facing': *Tom's Coffee-house over against the Unicorn / a man standing over against the house on the opposite side of the street / Mr B. took a chair over against them // When a passer-by fell down opposite Brooks's, apparently dead, they betted whether he was alive or not / (under a picture) two charity-girls are toasting each other opposite Kilman the distiller's / I saw opposite to me a double divan bed.*

Like *near*, *opposite* was formerly an adjective and adverb, and was linked with its complement by means of *to*; this is still the case in figurative usage: *opinions opposite to mine / 'left' is opposite to 'right'*, and it is likewise customary when a modifying adverb precedes: *Two persons directly opposite to each other may converse without being overheard by the company in the middle / the large open space between Rotten Row and Kensington Road, immediately opposite to the entrance into Prince's Gate // he got a good place all right, plumb opposite the grand-stand.* But otherwise there is a good deal of vacillation: *Alban stepped into the carriage and seated himself in the corner opposite to Anne / She sat down opposite to me / She came*

across to stand opposite to me // Presently she came opposite the window of a typewriting agency / we saw the lift gate opposite us / a chance traveller who sat opposite him.

Out (of)

Out was formerly used as preposition, as retained in the literary compound preposition *from out*: *from out the depths*.—In the U.S.A. it is used with the value of 'through': *he threw it out the window / he ran out the door*.—Apart from these usages it has been replaced by *out of*.

Out of, see from

(Out) of, in

Used of proportional figures, there is a certain approximation between these, *of* being used with designations for a specific (existing) group as complement, and *in* of average proportionals, while *out of* can be used in either connection: *She is one of five new High Court judges named last week / of the nine who had come into the laboratory three were girls // two in three Americans now live in cities / Not one in ten of the boys could spell well // Choose one out of these ten / the Pressed Steel Company manufactures two out of every five car bodies produced in Britain.*

Out of, outside

Out of may denote movement and direction, and is then the opposite of *into*: *she nearly fell out of the tree / out of the window and beyond the chimneys you could see the long glare from the lights in High Holborn / He and his minion Brandt were hustled out of life with all the circumstances of medieval barbarity.*

Of position, *out of* is used primarily of what is resultative: *I spent long periods out of England / fish cannot live out of water / she remained out of the house until after dark*. But *out of* is also used without any resultative association, and may then approximate

outside very closely: *The death of James Bone will grieve the hearts of innumerable friends in and out of journalism / he lives five miles out of town / This plant is not found out of a small area in Central Asia* (quoted from *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary*) // *the beneficed clergyman remained a gentleman outside his pulpit / the vicarage was half a mile outside the fishing-town of P. / this is not done outside the South*. In these cases *out of* and *outside* correspond to *in* and *within* (or *inside*) respectively; that is, *outside* carries more significance (see under *inside*).

Outside (of)

Outside is the opposite of both *within* and *inside*, and is thus used both of what is two-dimensional and of what is three-dimensional: *this is outside our jurisdiction / the women meet socially outside their cottages / the heat and the dusty leaves of the plane trees outside the window*. Formerly *without* was used like *within*, but as a preposition the word is archaic in this sense: '*lesser breeds, without the law*'. (Used in express opposition to *within*, as in *Communism within the country and international co-operation without its borders* (Aldous Huxley: *What are you going to do about it?* p. 21), *without* is very rare as a preposition, and as an adverb literary (mannered): *these mysterious forces . . . which are scattered without, and darkly concentrated within the body and mind of man / there are two bodies responsible for party organization, the Whips within the House and the Central Office without*.)

Outside of is common in the U.S.A. side by side with *outside*: *the greater part of the additions to the English vocabulary in the period of the Renaissance was drawn from sources outside of English*. In British English this has a colloquial note: *To live in flats and tenements is unusual outside of London / Don't think I'd say a word against him really . . . not to any one outside of just us*.

Over, see above & across

Over against, see opposite

Owing to, due to

Owing with *to* before the complement is found with adjectival function, and a fairly independent value corresponding roughly to 'deriving (from)': *it was to them that the great affection in which he was held was largely owing* (Somerset Maugham: *The Vagrant Mood*) / *George Saintsbury thought this was owing to the fact that for ten years he had written, post-haste, a mass of novels just to make a bare living / this was chiefly owing to his gauntness*. This type, where *owing* is used as a predicative complement, is now literary (the first example has a mannered effect); *owing to* is commonly used as a compound preposition, which together with its complement acts as an independent adverbial phrase (note, however, that *owing to* is not so established a phrase as to prevent the separation of the components by a modifying adverb): *he could not do less than behave handsomely by the bride, owing to his notorious admiration for her / a bet which turned out to be difficult of solution owing to the delicacy of asking the Duke how much he weighed / / owing partly to a revulsion of public feeling and largely to action by the English crown, a stop was put to the worst forms of persecution*.

Due normally acts as an adjective, with *to* before its complement, and is linked with a substantive, being placed immediately after it, or forming a predicative complement to it: *Even Horace had compunctions due to the visitations of a similar idea / her own disease was due to cosmetics / the neglect of roads in the City of Westminster was partly due to the fact that the River Thames was for many centuries the main highway of the citizens*. —But the use of *due to* instead of *owing to* to introduce an adverbial phrase cannot be regarded as fully accepted, although instances are frequently found: *I could not come due to another engagement / Due to inability to market their grain, prairie farmers have been faced for some time with a serious shortage of sums to meet their immediate needs* (Queen Elizabeth's Address in Canada, 1957, quoted from Fowler: *Mod. Eng. Usage*, 2nd. ed.).

Past, see after & beyond & by

Previous to, prior to, see before

Re, regarding, relating to, respecting & round, see about

Sans

This preposition may be encountered as an echo of *Sans teeth, sans eyes, sans taste, sans everything* (Shakespeare: *As You Like It*, II vii 166), e.g. *sans spirit, sans skill, sans everything*; such an expression may easily seem artificial, obviously so when the literary echo vanishes and *sans* is used merely as an 'elegant variation' on *without*: *thoughts of France in its present position, sans Algeria, alone in Europe, with de Gaulle playing the . . . pawnbroker . . . swarmed in.*

Save, saving, see except

Since, after

Since has as its complement a designation of a point of time, and the phrase denotes the period of time from this point up to and including the point of time expressed in the statement, i.e. the concept of time most frequently connected with the perfect and the pluperfect: *She hasn't been home since her marriage / There had been a church on the reedy island of Thorney in the Thames since 740 / Similar ideas had been floating about since the seventeen-twenties.*

After + similar complements denotes a period in the past not extending up to the time expressed in the statement, i.e. the concept especially connected with the preterite: *After his marriage . . . Prince Philip's many interests were reflected in the speeches he made / Throughout the next five hundred years of medieval and Tudor London after the building of London Bridge, riverborne trade to and from Britain expanded enormously / In the long twilight after the departure of the Roman legions most of the towns they had built and guarded fell into ruins.*

When the tenses mentioned are not included in the sentence the time concepts in question are indicated solely by the preposition selected: *Buckingham Palace, London home of the reigning sovereign since Victoria's accession / the decline in London-minted coins shows the falling-off in trade after the first quarter of the fourth century.*

When the difference between the concepts connected with the perfect and the preterite does not seem particularly great (cf. 1.7.3.2), the two prepositions may approximate one another closely: *Her great tragedy happened just three years ago . . . that would be since your sister's time / This is the third time after their marriage.*

Through, see by

Till, see before

Till, until, to

When *to* is used in a prepositional phrase denoting the end of a period: *Incest . . . nearly everybody dealt with it, from Walpole to Byron / the capital has had many stirring demonstrations, including those of the Suffragettes up to the First World War / productivity . . . an increase of 3.2 per cent, on average, up to 1970*, it may approach *till* and *until*, when these together with a complement denote the end of an action: *typing till midnight might be the price she paid for it* (: lingering over a cup of tea) / *all the morning from ten till one the quill of Wedderburn shrieked defiance at Hill's / I would revise my day's work and do my letters until twelve-thirty / 'big business' played a large part in shaping the social and economic policies of the regime—at any rate until 1935*. The difference between an association of 'period of time' and 'action' is obvious here.—*To* is usual in combination with *from*: *Summer is said to last from May to October / William Harvey worked in this hospital as chief physician from 1609 to 1643*; but the usage varies on this point: *Shops: Most shops are open on weekdays and Saturdays from 9 a.m. to 5.30 p.m. . . . Banks: Open Saturday 9 a.m. till 11.30*; and when the emphasis is on the 'action' (i.e. the content of the predicate) *till* and *until* are also used here: *From those days until the seventeenth century and the coming of Kensington Palace, Kensington was largely rural*.—A few further examples to show the mutual approximation of these prepositions: *there I found Walter Tillotson's biography. Pretty full to 1860, and then a blank / another coach was made in 1757 and was in use until 1896 // The first lachrymose period seems to have reached without interruption to the days of Shakespeare / Until the days of Jenner,*

most people were disfigured by smallpox // She lived to hard upon ninety / after the First World War and until his death I saw him frequently // Will the world ever succeed in changing that selfish and bellicose mentality which up to now has been interwoven in so much of its history / We revere Venus in museums, but up till now . . . 'Venereal' is strictly for the clinics . . . Here the second predicate of each pair of examples shows once again the greater content.

The difference between *till* and *until* is very slight; *till* is found more frequently in the lighter, more fluent style, *until* in the more formal style: *we hadn't heard it till now / We needn't start till half-past seven / I was to hold Henry up till the last moment // From now on until his death in 1723, he lived quietly in retirement / the welding of the two languages was not complete until the generation before 1400 / an American ultimatum giving foreign shipowners until September 1, to alter contracts.* If the prepositional phrase introduces the sentence, *until* is more frequent: *Until 1932 every book and pamphlet had to be entered at the Hall / Until Peel's reforms in 1829, over two hundred crimes carried the death penalty / Until early in the nineteenth century, much of the fish landed here was caught in the Thames;* in this position *till* is, however, by no means infrequent: *Till the last moment in a struggle of over eight hours the thing hung doubtful . . .*

To

With many verbs denoting a concept such as 'transfer' there is a close approximation between *to* + complement and an indirect object as dative equivalent.

In the word order vb. + direct obj. + designation for recipient *to* is necessarily attached to the last member (with the exception of the cases mentioned in 6.1.2, last-section). This word order is found in particular 1) when the concept of transference is evident: *the king is shown giving a document to the Lord Mayor / he gave his hand to Anne to help her down to the platform / A few minutes before he was shot, he handed a paper to the Marshal;* 2) when the designation for the recipient is more important than the direct object: *Tomorrow it will give a third reading to the British North America Bill, which . . . / So nice of you to have come . . . to do honour to England's artistic past / It was thought 'foolish' of Pope to give friendship to ordinary peers // They*

never stopped looking for a chance to turn and rend us and you gave it *to* them / She told it *to* me after a couple of ports / I am all gratitude to the gentleman who was kind enough to lend it *to* me; 3) when the designation for the receiving party is not a personal pronoun or the name of a person, and the verb has a metaphorical value: Mr J.'s comfortable bachelor quarters . . . could lend some sporting prints *to* the landing / Large areas of N.W.1 London owe their characteristic style and spacious layout *to* the mind and work of one man, John Nash / (de Sade) his name . . . gave a substantive, adjective, and adverb *to* every civilized language.

In the word order vb. + designation for recipient + direct object, an indirect object is commonly used, which is then a less important member than the direct object; the order is particularly common with a personal pronoun as the indirect object: *Great Britain offers the visitor a countryside which ranges from the densely wooded . . . / Rolls-Royce engines give the B.E.A. Vanguard a cruising speed of 400 mph / (political parties) Each was offering the electorate great slabs of strawberry tart // your younger colleagues have assembled here to do you honour / (the classics) We owe them an enormous debt / she handed him her machine.* The use of *to* + complement instead of an indirect object in this position is literary English: *At the end of his harangue Sir Herbert handed to Mr Tillotson a silk purse containing fifty-eight pounds / the House should open itself to press, television, and radio, giving to each an appropriate and hospitable welcome.*

Passive expressions corresponding to the above with an indirect object may have this member as the subject: (motor-cars) *all of them were forbidden to go at more than five miles an hour.* If the direct object becomes the subject of the passive expression the designation for the recipient is far more frequently expressed by *to* + complement than by an indirect object: *Somebody up in the gallery even clapped, which of course is strictly forbidden to all visitors / Musk was given to the mad King George as a medicine for insanity / the new leader will need all the united and enthusiastic support which was denied to Sir Alec // It was given me by the Grand Porte . . . for services rendered . . . / the pretext afforded him for making another likeness . . . of his young wife.*

The above-mentioned conditions determining the choice between indirect object and *to* + complement are of such a kind that there is no clear-cut distinction; in many cases either expression would be equally possible: *it would be doing a kindness to him / she would give all the money to Philip // This kind of underground tour does not offer the worker speedy transport / The Prime Ministers have not come all the*

way to London to lend Sir Alec's dying administration a touch of imperial glory.

To, see against

To, at

See also under *at*.

Her father, of course, was the lion of the party, but seeing we were all meek and willing to be eaten, he roared to us rather than at us.—With many verbs there is a distinction between expressions using these prepositions, *to*-phrases indicating that what is denoted by the complement is the goal of the action expressed by the verb, while *at*-phrases also have an association of intent to influence the complement. This can be seen with *go, rush, nod, shout*, etc.—Examples: *When he got to the gate he made me stop the car and said he wanted to walk / the books are locked up and we cannot get at them / / She pointed to the luggage / (two people in diving-outfits at the bottom of the sea) He pointed at her and pointed upward (viz. 'in order to communicate with') / these women will talk to you politely / He had no intention . . . of . . . talking at her, but the words had struck home (O.E.D.).*

To, see for

To, into

Used of change, these may approximate one another; expressions with *into* here denote the transition, *to*-expressions the result: *the rain changed into snow / the drizzle changed to a rain, and the guide shook his head and said it would be snowing higher up / / he turned my remarks into ridicule / the voice in the back row turned the dangerous situation to laughter / / he has grown into a fine young man / The Tate Collection has grown from the sixty-seven paintings and three sculptures to a collection of nearly four thousand British paintings.*

To, of

Substantives (in the indefinite form acting as predicative complement or being in apposition) denoting the holder of an office may be followed by *to* or *of* + the designation of a person or an institution: *Here Samuel Butler worked on his HUDIBRAS while he was steward to the Earl of Carbery / he was Lord Steward of the Household // Sir George Downing, a Secretary to the Treasury in the late seventeenth century / he was Secretary of the Treasury // Wren, then Surveyor-General of Works to Charles II / I was proclaimed principal surveyor-general of the family.* Here *of* expresses membership of, and *to* service to, the complement.

*To, see till**To, with*

In a number of cases a connection between two phenomena could be expressed by phrases containing *with* or *to*, all according to whether the situation is regarded as applying equally to both, or is seen from the point of view of one of them: *the King's Mails linked London with the leading cities and towns of the provinces / Bridge Street, a fine visual link of the Park to the river // The first true tube railway . . . opened in 1870 below the Thames, joining Great Tower Hill with Vine Street / the island was joined to the mainland // I have broken off all relations with him / my relation to Georgie, my mode of possessing her // the name should correspond with the personality and appearance of the individual who bore it / the broad lines on the map correspond to roads.*

When *compare* is used of comparison proper *with* is used before the complement: *the damage done in the first war, compared with the second, was slight / compare the efficiency of the nationalized industries with private concerns / Exports within EFTA rose by 51 per cent in the same period, compared with a 31 per cent increase in exports to the rest of the world // Wren stands out most clearly when we compare him with his Italian contemporaries / All this was small romance compared with the stories of the leading stars.* But when the value is 'to declare that something resembles . . .' the verb is combined with *to*: *it was to a Methodist that the proud Duchess of Argyll had compared poor*

Bozzy / They generally compared him to savage animals.—The first usage (*compare* = 'estimate differences and similarities'), however, not infrequently makes use of *to*, even where figures are concerned: *Freudian man, Marxian man, organization man . . . what were they compared to the S-man / / British parliamentary salaries have risen . . . to £1,750 in 1957. Compared to almost any trade or profession it is a modest record / Mr L. gives a disproportionate amount of space to 'Love's Comedy' (eight pages) as compared to 'The Pretenders' (one and a half).*—Used intransitively *compare* is followed by *with*: *few writers can compare with Scott as creators of romance*; but here also *to* is beginning to appear: *nothing in civilian experience can compare to the rate of increase in the cost of arms.*

Toward(s)

In the U.S.A. *toward* is the normal form; in England *towards* is the form in standard speech, while the form without *-s* is literary or regional: *an economic reason . . . was working . . . toward the downfall of the unhappy Queen* (T. H. White: *The Age of Scandal*) // *I moved toward the claret bottle* (Iris Murdoch: *A Severed Head*).

Towards, see against

Under, see below & during

Under, in

In a number of cases *in* denotes environment (or corresponding figurative values), *under* adds to this an element of 'affected by': *moisture is precipitated in the lee of the mountain / the guide crouched under the lee of the nearest (: rock) / / don't take a walk in this weather / I have been under the weather for a day or two / / A certain clergyman, in an attack upon modern painters in 1836, described Turner's Juliet and her Nurse as . . . / under an attack of pain she cried out . . .* In combination with words such as *circumstances, conditions*, this distinction might be expected to be clearly marked: *This sudden heightened awareness, in circumstances so moving, added a humanism*

to his art which has remained / Her intrigue came to a head in 1772, under circumstances of great peril // What will be the development of the population in these new conditions? / under favourable conditions this plant may attain a great height. But under is commonly found with these substantives, even when there does not appear to be any association of 'influence from surroundings': we made the passage under favourable circumstances / A. visited a warship after the victory . . . and from him we may extract a verbal picture of the conditions under which that council of war was . . . held.

Underneath, see below

Until, see before & till

Unto, to

Unto was formerly used instead of *to*, even including phrases of locality: *With a heavy heart . . . go I unto the Tower* (Shakespeare: Richard III 3.1.150). It may now occur, as markedly archaic, in place of *to* in figurative use, often with a distinct echo of a quotation: *Here were born unto him a son and a daughter / He was nigh unto death / It is a hard world for those devoted to the idea that nation should speak unto nation* (Manchester Guardian Weekly, Sept. 1965).

Up, see along

Upon, see against

Upon, on

See also *on*.

These two prepositions are so close that an exchange does not alter the factual content of the phrase. The following are the leading factors that appear to determine the choice:

Rhythmical considerations may play a part: *I left my hand upon*

the table / George II died upon the stool / that accounted for the alarm upon the faces of several peasants / / Much depends on President Nasser / We also play on nearby school grounds / There was a man who loved islands. He was born on one. — Thus upon is often found at the end of a phrase: S. was most effective to look upon / There is nothing in the way of anecdote to browse upon / the leaders of the parties were called upon to take immediate steps . . .

Stylistic considerations: *upon* is less colloquial than *on*: *A great stillness seemed to have fallen upon the world / Anglo-German friendship has been growing in the past few years, and the time was ripe for the seal to be set upon reconciliation / the substance upon which, and with which, the directing mind must work / / I haven't got any more money than just what we can manage on / just retired from teaching English at a London school, and living on the Isle of Wight, Mr U. is . . . / the only boy employed on the farm.*

In certain cases one or the other of these prepositions has become established: *once upon a time / upon my soul / he had come upon the rioters when they were looting the office / He promised the rebels a hearing, upon which many of them dispersed* (where *upon* combines the associations 'time' and 'consequence'; cf. *whereupon*, *hereupon*, *thereupon*) */ / on no account / on the telephone / be on hand / be on time.*

A certain distinction in content between *upon* and *on* can, however, be stated; an association of something subjective, an emotional attitude, may be linked with *upon*-phrases, while corresponding *on*-phrases have an objective association: *you have encroached upon my land here / the sea has encroached on the land at many points.* This value of *upon* is common in the type: singular substantive + *upon* + sing. subst. to express strikingly large numbers: *hour upon hour can be spent disentangling their quarrels / Wave upon wave of French, Italians, Greeks, Cypriots, and others have come here since the first Huguenot refugees arrived in 1685 / behind many docks stretched mile upon mile of cramped, squalid dwellings; compare the book is beautifully written, page on page.*

Versus, see against

Via, see by

With, see against & by & from

With, in

Used of the appearance of persons, *with* = 'equipped with' and *in* = 'dressed in' may approximate one another to some extent, *in*, however, dominating a larger part of the area than one would expect from the preposition's central value: *a gentleman with a dyed moustache / the young lady with the parasol / the gentleman with muff . . . is said to be Lord P. // a lady in a hooped skirt / the man in the bowler hat / a man in a wig // a girl in spectacles / he suffered from short sight, but wouldn't wear glasses with strangers (and I was still enough of a stranger never to have seen him in them) // A young woman with a large black Rubens hat / innumerable old ladies on the lawn in floppy hats // a fellow with a little dispatch-case, slouching: a thin man with a red beard . . . 'A new World!' cried the man in the beard. On the other hand, with is the vaguer of the two, and can be used with co-ordinate complements of both types: *Clio . . . with her buskins, her robes, and her airs of importance.**

With, see to

With regard to, with respect to, see about

Within, see inside

Without, see outside

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This is a grammar at intermediate university level presenting the English parts of speech which provides easy reference but which is at the same time readable as a continuous text. For this reason the numerous examples are set within the text while their key features are lightly indicated for easy recognition. The examples are all genuine, nearly all being taken from modern English. The grammar should therefore not only be suitable for university use, but also for advanced courses in institutes where a good standard of modern English is aimed at, whether for specialist requirements or normal adult use.

The first edition of this book was published in 1965 having originally appeared in Danish. This second edition has been revised and has as the main additional feature an appendix on *Semantically Related Prepositions*.

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